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**Self-Regulation in L2 Oral Narrative Tasks Performed by Adult
Korean Users of English**

by

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Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
The University of Texas at Austin
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

**The University of Texas at Austin
December 2001**

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Korean Users of English**

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Dedication

To my grandmother, parents, parents-in-law, wife, and daughters

Acknowledgements

The time spent as a doctoral student at the University of Texas at Austin has been a great opportunity for my academic career. While taking courses, I encountered new knowledge and discovered what became the grounds of my dissertation research. Among these courses, Dr. Diane Schallert's psycholinguistics course and Dr. Keith Walters's sociolinguistics course were very useful to me and inspired what eventually became the research topic of my dissertation. I would also like to express my gratitude to Dr. Diane Schallert for her kind and thoughtful help in writing my dissertation. Dr. Thomas Garza's knowledge about Vygotskian psychology steered me in the right direction. Dr. Judith Lindfors's advice on the application of the Vygotskian approach to second language research made me focus my research questions more productively. Dr. Elaine Horwitz helped me begin to acquire a professional approach to academic work and to the writing of my dissertation. I appreciate their great professional support as chairs and committee members of my dissertation committee.

I am certain that I could not have written my dissertation without the tremendous help of the eight Korean participants in my study. Their performance and comments were the essential backbone of my research, and without their contribution, I would not be here today. The continuous discussions with Ms. Lori Belk were very fruitful in helping me understand the participants' narratives

from an English speaker's perspective. Dr. Young-kuk Jeong's professional help in counting vocabulary terms used by the participants made it possible for me to discuss one of the key points in my dissertation. Ms. Pamela Bona helped me very much in finalizing my dissertation. I am grateful to Dr. Jai Hee Lee and members of the Society of English Language Teaching Information in Korea for their concerns and help that allowed me to finish writing my dissertation in a timely way. Writing my dissertation was a part of my everyday life that could not have been managed without the big help of Durae friends. I'm thankful for them.

I am privileged and honored to say that the most important persons in my life, my wife Dr. Joohae Kim, my six-year-old daughter Jungwon Kim, and my five-month-old daughter Jiwon Kim, have been on my mind and in my heart all the while that I worked on my dissertation. In addition to her loving support, by virtue of her own training, Joohae also gave professional advice at all phases of writing my dissertation. I love them very much. I cherish the memory of my late grandmother for her unlimited love for me. I acknowledge that I could not have pursued my academic career without the sacrifices of my parents, and I would like to pay a high tribute to them. I also acknowledge that my parents-in-law have been great sponsors and I am very grateful for them.

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Publication No. _____

Youngwoo Kim, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2001

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When second language (L2) users experience difficulty in performing a task in English, they often engage in efforts to overcome their difficulties through strategic behaviors aimed at achieving the goals of the task. If those efforts take the form of, or are accompanied by, verbal expressions, these verbal expressions are often referred to as private speech, and their function described as self-regulatory, by second language researchers taking a Vygotskian perspective. In this study, these claims were inspected and re-defined by linking a Vygotskian perspective on self-regulation with a metacognitive perspective.

Eight Korean graduate students enrolled in a U.S. university participated in this study. They were videotaped as they performed two narrative tasks, one using a series of pictures that had no words and a second, a recall task in which they watched a movie clip and retold the story they had seen. They were also

interviewed as they watched their narrative performance. During the interview, they provided their thoughts on using English and on engaging in self-regulatory behaviors. Their utterances and gestures in the narrative tasks were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed. The interviews were recorded, partially transcribed, and analyzed.

Results and discussion included the finding of support for previous studies that L2 users' private speech functions as a self-regulatory process and plays an important role in the process. There were also findings that revealed limitations in explaining L2 users' self-regulatory behaviors from a simple Vygotskian conception of private speech. Several theoretical concepts from a more general metacognitive perspective, including aspects that refer to contextualization and frame, were effective in explaining the social context in which L2 self-regulatory behaviors occur. Theoretical and practical implications of the results of this study and possible future research topics are also addressed.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Those who have learned English as a second language (L2) are finding that they have many more chances to use English than ever before. This phenomenon is caused by the general fact that language groups interact more often than before and that members of certain groups frequently stay in other language groups, either temporarily or for a rather more permanent amount of time. Particularly, as English has come to be considered an international language, individuals in other language groups have considered using English important.

When individuals use English as a second language and their English fluency is not enough to perform an English task successfully, they are likely to experience difficulty in executing the task. When they encounter such difficult circumstances, second language users tend to give their efforts to overcome the difficulty through strategic behaviors in order to achieve the goal of the task.

One approach to descriptions of L2 strategic behaviors has been to characterize them as communication strategies (Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1980; Varadi, 1980). Many examples have been collected and categorized into related but different category systems by L2 researchers (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). A different research movement, begun in the middle 80's, has attempted to explain L2 users' efforts in overcoming their difficulties in L2 speaking by using ideas from Vygotsky's perspective. Frawley and Lantolf (1985) observed linguistic behaviors in L2 narratives that were signs of L2 users'

efforts, and they considered those behaviors as self-regulatory forms under a Vygotskian perspective. They claimed that with the help of language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors, L2 users are able to achieve an L2 task that cannot be achieved with their usual behaviors. They named those language-mediated expressions private speech, because those expressions were used not for social interaction but for self-regulation, and this is the label that has traditionally been used in the child development literature. Following the framework of language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors in Frawley and Lantolf (1985), McCafferty (1992, 1994a, 1994b) investigated self-regulatory expressions, private speech, in L2 oral narrative tasks, and supported Frawley and Lantolf's claim of the self-regulatory process in L2 speaking. Although their studies were the starting point, the study reported here represents an attempt to expand the concept of self-regulation theoretically and to consider the possibility of other categories of self-regulatory behaviors, leading to a proposal to link L2 studies from a Vygotskian perspective and L2 communication strategies in order to elucidate more thoroughly the concept of self-regulation in L2 use.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The term "private speech" was introduced by Vygotsky when he explained how children use language for regulatory purposes and how they learn such a language function from the society in which they live. With social interactions beginning in infancy, people use language to interact with other people. During

these interactions, particularly when following orders or directions expressed in language spoken by caregivers, children learn the regulatory function of language. Then, they internalize a regulatory function of language. The internalized language becomes inner speech, the basis of human higher mental function and thought, according to Vygotsky (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991).

When individuals need to regulate themselves in a certain situation, inner speech may become externalized, i.e., comes out from the mouth, as private speech. Therefore, private speech functions to regulate its producer, which means that it lacks a social intent. Winsler's (1995) definition of private speech points to such a function of private speech: "speech which is either overtly directed toward the self or not explicitly addressed to another person" (p. 464).

In the second language research field, Frawley and Lantolf (1985) began to investigate L2 private speech by introducing Vygotskian concepts. The assumption in their investigation is that as L2 users are not "autonomous finalized knowers" (p. 22), they cannot help expressing difficulties as they attempt to use their second language. Therefore, when a difficult L2 task is given, they often use private speech to solve their difficulties, reverting to a strategy well-learned in childhood. Based on Frawley and Lantolf (1985), McCafferty (1992, 1994a, 1994b) investigated L2 private speech with narrative data. He classified L2 private speech into three kinds of regulation: object-regulation, other-regulation, and self-regulation. These studies offer their contributions in arguing for the social origin of human language and its application in second language research.

Moreover, those studies demonstrated L2 users' self-regulatory behaviors through actual data. However, the following questions remain.

First, are all L2 self-regulatory behaviors language-mediated? Although it would seem obvious that L2 users use the regulatory functions of language in performing their L2 tasks, they also show other behaviors for their self-regulation. For example, pauses, fillers, and gestures are often used in the course of successful performance by L2 users. Pause length, speech rate, and numbers of syllables between pauses have been investigated in L2 speaking studies (Dechert, Mohle & Raupach, 1984; Crookes, 1991; Mehnert, 1998). Studies of self-regulation from a metacognitive perspective in which several subprocesses are said to be under an overarching metacognitive process provide theoretical bases for other self-regulatory behaviors (Paris & Winograd, 1990; Hacker, Dunlosky & Graesser, 1998; Carver & Scheier, 1998; Mithaug, 1993; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Schwartz & Shapiro, 1976).

Second, do adult L2 users use private speech as children do? Adult L2 users may be different in using private speech quantitatively and qualitatively, guided by the social context in which they find themselves. This point is associated with social attitudes toward adult private speech. In a stream of private speech studies of the elderly, private speech was associated with their disorder symptoms, and researchers in the studies often recommended that the elderly should not be discouraged from using private speech, because it plays an effective role in coping with their disorder. Conversely, it is more possible that adults may

not use private speech because of its negative impression, even if they need the self-regulation that would come from it.

Third, what is the relationship between self-regulatory behaviors and L2 communication strategies? Since the 1980s, communication strategies have been investigated in second language research. Several researchers have classified various communication strategies into several categories (Corder, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1980, 1987). O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified private speech, "self-talk" in their terms, as one type of communication strategies (p. 86). Frawley and Lantolf (1985) emphasized that as L2 speaking is more than the sending and receiving of messages, but has "everything to do with the maintenance of control in speaking tasks," L2 users' behaviors defined as communication strategies in purely descriptive taxonomies can now be elevated to an explanatory level, self-regulation (p. 42).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

To obtain answers to the previous questions raised in examining L2 private speech studies and to understand L2 learner's self-regulatory behaviors, the following research questions were addressed in this study.

1. What kinds of self-regulatory behaviors do adult L2 users use?

2. How are adult self-regulatory behaviors interpreted in a social context?
How do adult L2 users respond to the social interpretation of their behaviors?
3. How are self-regulatory behaviors related to L2 communication strategies?

These research questions were addressed by analyzing L2 users' narratives, think-aloud protocols, and interview data. Considering the fact that the number of participants of this study was small and that they had a specific language and cultural background, these questions may seem to be stated in an overly broad way. However, a justification for such broad wording can be found in the psychological approach adopted in this study in which "questions and speculations concerning the nature of humanity itself" (Corsini, 1984, p. 123) are focused on. Thus, although I acknowledge that my study derives its data only from the talk and self-reports of eight Korean male students using English, the purpose of the study was to address the broader issue of self-regulation in L2 use. Granted that other population of L2 users would need to be included in order to make my findings generalizable, nevertheless my approach was to begin to make a contribution to the broader questions.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The results of this study may be of significance to investigators of adult L2 self-regulatory behaviors from within a broader framework than provided by the previous Vygotskyan-oriented studies. That is, this study was an attempt to overcome the conceptual limitations of private speech in a Vygotskyan perspective and to broaden our understanding of adult L2 users' self-regulatory efforts. Adult L2 users may use self-regulatory behaviors differently from children. Therefore, when results of L1 private speech studies are applied to research on L2 speaking, some caution must be taken. In addition, the discussion of the relationship between self-regulatory behaviors and communication strategies may inform our understanding of communication strategies per se.

In practical aspects, this study supports the claim of previous studies that have shown that there is a self-regulatory process in L2 use. Therefore, in language use, L2 learners' use of self-regulatory behaviors, including private speech, needs to be understood; and in language teaching, this behavior needs to be considered (Di Pietro, 1987).

OVERVIEW OF THE DISSERTATION

In this chapter, the purpose and the significance of the study were discussed. Chapter Two includes a review of the research relevant to this study. Chapter Three presents the research methodology of this study: recruitment of participants, procedure to elicit data, and analysis procedures. In Chapter Four,

summaries of the performance of participants and research findings are presented. In addition, discussions on several topics will be presented. The final chapter will report a synthesis of results and discussion of the limitations of this study. Suggestions for further research and implications for theory and practice are also included.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter will review studies in self-regulation and self-regulatory behaviors in second language users' speech. First, literature focusing on the cognitive difficulties involved in second language speaking will be studied. Second, studies of self-regulation from a metacognitive psychology perspective and from a Vygotskian perspective will be discussed. Third, these same topics will be pursued but now considering L2 studies. Finally, in order to capture self-regulatory behaviors in second language users' speech rather broadly, categories in a Vygotskian approach in second language acquisition research and new categories for self-regulatory behaviors is presented together. In the conclusion, additional literature will be reviewed to introduce theoretical tools to explain second language users' self-regulatory behaviors.

SECOND LANGUAGE SPEAKING AS A COGNITIVELY DEMANDING ACTIVITY

Speaking in a second language is often a daunting task to most second language users. Especially when they do not prepare for the speaking event or when preparation is not ready or permitted, the difficulty of speaking in their second language often increases. These difficulties have been measured with temporal variables in second language speaking and speakers' efforts to overcome such difficulties have been researched in studies of L2 communication strategies.

A consideration of L2 speaking models serves to illustrate the cognitive processes involved in L2 speaking that can be analyzed to understand these difficulties.

In order to describe fluency in L2 speaking and its developmental change, L2 researchers have studied temporal variables such as speech rate (the number of syllables per second, pause time included), articulation rates (the number of syllables per second of time of articulation, pause time excluded), pause length, and length of run (the mean number of syllables between pauses) (Wiese, 1984). Hesitation phenomena such as filled pauses, repetitions, and corrections were also included in the studies. Temporal variables and hesitations are claimed to be related to speech planning that L2 users employ in the production of L2 speech (Dechert, 1980; Ellis, 1994). The fact that temporal variables and hesitations are fewer and shorter means that L2 users need less time in planning their speech. Therefore, the results of temporal variables studies point clearly to the difficulties involved in L2 speaking because L2 speakers with low fluency show more and longer pauses, and more hesitations in their speaking.

Some L2 researchers have focused on L2 communication strategies (Cook, 1996; Ellis, 1994). Ellis defined communication strategies as “[what] learners use to overcome the inadequacies of their interlanguage resources” (Ellis, 1994, p. 396). He identified the occasion when L2 learners use communication strategies.

CSs [communication strategies] are used primarily to deal with lexical problems, such as when a learner who does not know the word for ‘art gallery’ refers to it as a ‘picture place’. CSs can also be used to get around a grammatical problem, as when a learner deliberately elects to use ‘ask’ instead of ‘make’ because of uncertainty regarding which form of the

infinitive (plain infinitive or 'to' + infinitive) to use with 'make.' (Ellis, 1994, p. 396)

Two approaches in dealing with communication strategies, the interactional approach and the psychological approach, have been adopted to describe L2 users' efforts to overcome their difficulties in using their L2. In the interactional approach which was initiated by Varadi (1980) and adopted by Tarone (1980), the interactional situation and the L2 learners' responding to it are emphasized. Tarone defined communication strategies as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone, 1980, p. 419). This approach and its typology of communication strategies has been criticized because of its vague, arbitrary, and irrelevant criteria for assigning an utterance to a specific strategic category (Bialystok, 1990, p. 75) and lack of psychological plausibility and parsimony of taxonomies (Ellis, 1994, p. 398). In contrast, in the psychological approach, communication strategies are seen as part of the planning process in the speech production model (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, 1984). The model consists of two parts, a planning phase and an execution phase. Therefore, communication strategies are called upon when learners experience some problem with their initial plan, which prevents them from executing it. This approach is appealing in that communication strategies can be located in a theory of L2 production, but it is cognitively-oriented and lacks a consideration of the situation in which L2 users use communication strategies.

L2 researchers have provided several descriptions of the second language production process: Krashen's Monitor Theory, Anderson's ACT* Model and Information Processing Model, Bialystok's Analysis/Control Model, MacWhinney's Competition Model, and Connectionism (Bialystok, 1990; Cook, 1993; Ellis, 1994; MacWhinney, 1989; McLaughlin, 1987). Pointing to their partial descriptions of the process, de Bot (1992) presented an L2 speaking model based on Levelt's (1989) speaking model. He said that he modified the original model as little as possible because the model is considered to be based on solid L1 empirical data. The Levelt's model consists of conceptualizer, formulator, articulator, speech-comprehension system, and lexicon.¹ His major modification of the model is found in the second phase of the conceptualizer, the microplanning stage, that is, "the speaker's elaboration of a communicative intention by selecting the information whose expression may realize the communicative goals" (de Bot, 1992, p. 4), and the formulator stage. He argued that these two levels are language-specific. He admitted that this modified model needed to be tested as well as its relationship with the metacognitive process. In the discussion of second language production model, Crookes (1991) emphasized the importance of planning and monitoring, because those processes are useful to manage the greater demands of the second language speaking tasks and lesser resources of the L2 learners. He regarded these processes as executive control

¹ The conceptualizer is the place where information and the speaker's intention locate. The output of the conceptualizer is a preverbal message. The formulator converts the preverbal message into a speech plan by selecting words and applying rules. An articulator converts the speech plan into actual speech. In the speech-comprehension system of the model, feedback takes place and any mistakes are located.

processes. Some researchers investigated the effect of planning time in second language speaking and argued its significance (Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999). Unfortunately, these discussions of L2 speaking model have not provided any consideration of social context and its influence on L2 speaking.

SELF-REGULATION SEEN FROM A METACOGNITIVE THEORY PERSPECTIVE AND FROM A VYGOTSKYAN PERSPECTIVE

Self-regulation or self-control has been investigated in cognitive psychology at an exponential pace since the late eighties (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994b). It has been considered one part of metacognitive process. In a Vygotskian sociocultural approach, language-mediated self-regulation is emphasized whose origin is found in the interpsychological domain where people interact. In what follows, I consider the definitions of the term from the two perspectives.

A Metacognitive Theory Perspective

Nelson and Narens (1990) expressed the difficulty of describing what makes a certain thought or feeling “metacognitive” as opposed to simply cognitive (Hacker, 1998). Hacker (1998) looked for help from Flavell’s definition of metacognition: “knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena” (p. 3). In the definition, the notion of thinking about one’s own thoughts can be found. In mentioning the characteristics of metacognition, the idea of deliberate, planful, intentional, goal-directed thinking has been suggested (Hacker, 1998). As its sub-

processes, planning, monitoring, and controlling are introduced. In the processes, metacognitive control exercises self-regulation. Garcia and Pintrich (1994) understood that self-regulation refers to peoples' monitoring, controlling, and regulating of their own cognitive activities and actual behavior. Therefore, they argued that the model of self-regulatory strategies includes three general types of strategies: planning, monitoring, and regulating (p. 143).

Schunk and Zimmerman (1994a) defined self-regulation as the process in which people trigger and maintain cognitions, behaviors, and affects, which are systematically oriented toward achieving their goals (p. 309). This broad definition of self-regulation is meaningful, because affect factors are included. However, although, not directly adopted in this study, the broad definition of investigators from a social cognitive learning theory perspective is considered. The theory includes self-observation and self-judgment with self-reaction as the processes of self-regulation (Schunk, 1991). This definition is useful in that it covers a series of interactions between the processes: observing one's own behaviors, judging them based on criteria, and reacting intentionally in certain social contexts.

Cognitive behaviorists such as Carver and Scheier (1998) identified the time when self-regulatory behaviors appear. In their theory, self-regulatory effort emerges when there is a discrepancy between what people want (goal) and what they can normally do. Therefore, when people cannot achieve a goal with their normal behavior, they apply a metacognitive strategy and take a resultant behavior, a self-regulatory behavior, to resolve the discrepancy. When this

discrepancy is resolved, their self-regulatory effort may stop. The feedback process plays a role in this evaluation. If they cannot achieve a goal, sometimes they adjust the goal. Mithaug (1993) named this adjustment “intelligent adjustment” (p. 160).

A Vygotskian Perspective

In a Vygotskian sociocultural perspective, self-regulation is included as a part of higher mental functions that consist of a “psychological system” in an interactional context (Henderson & Cunningham, 1994). Henderson and Cunningham (1994) admitted that “the acquisition of self-regulation skills is not distinct from the development of other higher order conceptual knowledge” such as memory, analysis, evaluation, synthesis, and planning (p. 256).

As language is important in the development of self-regulation in interactional situations, self-regulation is a linguistically guided process (Henderson & Cunningham, 1994). Gestures are also considered semiotic signs in the perspective. Therefore, when considering the spectrum of theoretical stances on the relationship between language and thought, their position is at the extremes of the ‘language = thought’ group (Dominowski, 1998).

As researchers in this perspective investigated the development of self-regulation with the ontogenesis of speech, they explored private speech as a tool of self-regulation. The situation in which researchers expect child private speech

to appear is similar to the situation in which communication strategies in L2 speaking occur.

Private speech, as a tool to plan, guide and monitor ongoing activity, should appear in moments of stress or difficulty, when the task demands are greater than the child's routinized and automatized abilities. (Diaz, 1992, p. 58)

As the explanation about private speech here shows, private speech is a tool for metacognitive activity because it is used to plan, guide, and monitor ongoing cognitive activity.

According to Fuson's (1979) review of child private speech studies, children produced a few private speech utterances and some produced none. Those results raise doubts about the self-regulatory function of private speech as proposed by a Vygotskian psychology. As a supportive argument to the role of private speech, Diaz (1992) pointed to the influence of the research situation of the studies. He proposed two conditions where self-regulatory private speech emerges: (1) There is a need for executive control; (2) There is a relative absence of external, other-regulation (p. 58).

Diaz's (1992) definition of private speech contrasts with social speech: "speech addressed to the self (not to others) for the purpose of self-regulation (rather than communication)" (p. 62). However, he admitted that judging and classifying private speech from utterances is difficult because inferences about both intention and function of utterances are necessary in the distinction between social and private speech, something that may be problematic. In addition, the fact

that social speech is also reported to have a self-regulatory function makes the situation more complicated (Diaz, 1992).

Self-Regulation from Both Perspectives

In a Vygotskian perspective, although social influence on the development of an individual's higher mental function is emphasized, it is not enough to identify the mental processes and their respective functions. Therefore, when self-regulatory behaviors are investigated, language-mediatedness is solely the focus in analyzing verbal behaviors. As a result, limitations in covering various self-regulatory behaviors among verbal and non-verbal behaviors arise.

By contrast, although a metacognitive perspective can cover diverse self-regulatory behaviors, it is difficult to investigate the influence of social context on the behaviors systematically. In addition, the self-regulatory function of language is missed in their analysis.

STUDIES OF SECOND LANGUAGE USE THAT TAKE A VYGOTSKYAN REGULATORY APPROACH

Second language use has been investigated through a cognitive perspective and this research practice has produced useful results and implications of individual factors in learning and using L2. However, unfortunately, this tradition lacks consideration of the social context in which L2 is learned and used.

Although social context was considered, the approach was limited.² In this respect, applying a Vygotskian approach to the study of L2 use is meaningful.

Frawley and Lantolf (1985) were the first to study second language discourse from a Vygotskian perspective. Following Wertsch's theory, they identified two types of metacognition in human mental activity: "those concerned with conscious reflection of one's cognitive abilities and those concerned with 'self-regulatory' mechanisms during on-going attempts to learn how to solve problems" (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985, pp. 19-20). They claimed that this self-regulatory mechanism, "independent strategic function," is derived from social interaction and its primary form is other-regulation performed by caregivers or parents in childhood. Frawley and Lantolf (1985) defined self-regulation as "the ability to engage successfully as an individual in strategic processes" (p. 20). During the other-regulation stage, language used in the situation mediates the regulatory interaction and children internalize the regulatory function of language while private speech is internalized. Later, language is used for self-regulation. In addition to the concept of other-regulation, Frawley and Lantolf (1985) brought the term, object-regulation, from Wertsch (1979), referring to the situation in which children are regulated by surrounding objects without performing actions for "decontextualized goals" (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985, p. 22). Wertsch (1979) described how children pursue a goal through object-regulation.

² For example, Schumann's (1986) case study explained one aspect, social and psychological distance from the target society, of the influence of social context in L2 acquisition.

When the child's action is regulated by the physical environment, we have an instance of a true action at the intrapsychological plane of functioning because the goal is consciously recognized through constant reminders from surrounding stimuli. ... at this early stage there must be physically present objects in the task situation that attract and maintain the child's attention. The other side of this coin is that the child is easily distracted by environmental stimuli in such a way that unless the task-relevant stimuli are more salient, it is often very difficult to remain on a task until it is finished. (p. 90)

He argued, further, that object-regulatory private speech appears at the early stage in the development of private speech and is more concerned with "describing and naming certain aspects of the action and the environment than with planning and directing action" (p. 93).

Frawley and Lantolf (1985) claimed that when L2 adult users cannot perform tasks with their normal self-regulation process, other- and object-regulation can be used. Wertsch (1979) considered inability to pursue a goal spontaneously in object-regulation; Frawley and Lantolf (1985) did not. Rather, they focused on how external-regulatory behaviors, object-regulatory and other-regulatory behaviors, help self-regulation.³ They named this occurrence of object- and other-regulations throughout life as "the principle of continuous access" (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985, p. 22; Kronk, 1994). They also regarded verbal expressions seeking object- and other-regulation as private speech.

With this theoretical background, Frawley and Lantolf (1985) analyzed four discursive phenomena in second language discourse: macrostructure, tense and aspect, reference, and affective markers. They concluded that L2-specific

³ It is hard to imagine a situation in which adults do some activities without goals.

discursive phenomena can be explained by object- and other-regulation in a Vygotskian perspective. In addition, they insisted confidently that with this approach, L2 communication strategies can be explained, and their approach is able to offer explanatory power.

McCafferty (1994a) reviewed seven studies from 1984 to 1994 that focused on L2 private speech. All studies followed the framework established in Frawley and Lantolf (1985), which was also influenced by Wertsch (1979). The studies showed that L2 learners use private speech for self-regulation, although there was variance according to tasks and their environments.

All data in the studies came from language-related tasks such as spoken or written narration and recall tasks. In one study in the review, private speech data came from an interactive situation (McCafferty, 1994a, p. 428). In order to identify private speech data from subjects' narratives, the following definition was used.

Any utterance considered to be an instance of self-regulatory private speech in picture narration task has to meet three basic requirements: (a) it has to be essentially tangential to the narrative, (b) it has to be self-directed in the sense of being basically an effort to seek self-guidance, and (c) it has to be concerned with mastering some task-relevant difficulty. (McCafferty, 1994b, p. 125)

Admitting that verbal expressions selected by this definition are not strictly private speech, McCafferty cited as a theoretical ground the following assertion from Frawley and Lantolf (1985):

In short, if the second language discourse is seen as a strategy for knowing the discourse rather than relating it, then the inherent difficulty of this task demands that the producer—the knower—seek out other strategies to regulate himself in the production. Thus, the peculiarities of second language discourse—odd tense, odd aspects, odd pronominalization, even odd hesitation phenomena—can be understood as functional for the knower/ producer: the absence of odd forms in native discourse can be understood likewise. (McCafferty, 1994a, p. 425) (originally from Frawley & Lantolf (1985, p. 23))

Although the rationale of self-regulatory strategy and its expressions are acceptable, categorizing those expressions as private speech is not intuitive because the fundamental characteristic of private speech is to speak alone or to oneself. Wells (1998) claimed that dichotomy of speech into private speech and social speech and their functions is questionable in mentioning that “it may be more appropriate to treat all utterances spoken aloud as having both an inner and an outer orientation, one or the other of which has greater salience on any particular occasion” (p. 349). Therefore, it seems reasonable to name those expressions investigated in Frawley and Lantolf (1985) and McCafferty (1992, 1994a, 1994b) as language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors instead of “private speech” because they are basically language-mediated and used for self-regulation. Moreover, they are a part of individuals’ self-regulatory efforts.

CATEGORIZING L2 SELF-REGULATORY BEHAVIORS AND THEIR CATEGORIES

Self-regulatory behaviors are many and seem to vary according to theoretical perspectives as well as to the situation in which second language

learners perform tasks. Given a Vygotskian perspective, researchers have investigated behaviors that were mediated mostly by language. Additional categories of self-regulatory behaviors have been suggested by other perspectives.⁴ In this section, several categories used in previous studies will be discussed. The categorization of Frawley and Lantolf (1985) and McCafferty (1992, 1994a, 1994b) will be introduced first. Then, other categories of self-regulatory behaviors that have been studied in the L2 research on temporal variables and that metacognitive studies have dealt with will be presented. Finally, self-regulatory gestures in McCafferty (1998) will be summarized.

Frawley and Lantolf (1985)

Frawley and Lantolf (1985) identified categories of self-regulatory behaviors from four discursive phenomena in second language discourse: macrostructure, tense and aspect, reference, and affective markers. The following are the four discursive phenomena.

1) Macrostructure: Frawley and Lantolf (1985) claimed that second language learners externalize the macrostructure of the narrative through “extra-discursive” and/or “fragmented demonstrations of information” (p. 26). According to them, the difficulty of L2 tasks leads L2 users to do such externalization that lets them know what to do in the task. And, then, they are able

⁴ For example, with the broad definition of self-regulation, Zimmerman (1989) proposed three kinds of self-regulation: covert self-regulation, behavioral self-regulation, and environmental self-regulation. Covert self-regulation is an invisible metacognitive process. Behavioral self-regulation is “proactive use of a self-evaluation strategy” and “enactive feedback” (p. 330). Environmental self-regulation is an effort to manipulate the environment to achieve a goal.

to self-regulate in performing the task. In the macrostructure phenomena, they listed labeling, perspective marker, and frame as categories of self-regulatory behaviors. In their examples, an ESL learner with an intermediate proficiency level said, “*This is Tom,*” although the character in the story was not named Tom at all. This naming externalized fundamental features of discourse macrostructure through making explicit the fact that there is a participant in the discourse. Among perspective markers, they cited the usage of *I see, apparently in I see, uh, apparently a young boy*, which showed the narrator’s viewpoint of the macrostructure of the story and let the narrator self-regulate through detachment from the story. Finally, instead of connecting a series of episodes as guided in the task, second language discourse showed the frame-by-frame construction (Frawley and Lantolf, 1985, p. 29).

2) Tense and aspect: Frawley and Lantolf (1985) argued that the basic tense in narrative is the historical present that implies atemporality, and using past or present progressive in narrating the story are ways to self-regulate. They viewed that the use of the past tense in narrative tasks lets narrators take distance from the events in the story, whose distance has the same function as the externalization of the macrostructure of the story. They also argued that the often-used progressive aspect showed the lack of the speaker’s self-regulation in the task and the dependence on the immediacy and sequences of the story as objects. However, the usage of tense is individualistic and questionable. McCafferty indicated this point (McCafferty, 1994a). In addition, some researchers have stated that the basic tense of narrative is the past tense (McCabe, 1991).

3) Reference: Frawley and Lantolf (1985) said that because of the difficulty of tasks, second language learners use pronouns thematically rather than anaphorically. If pronouns are used thematically, the pronouns' referents have to be found through the entire narrative, not locally. They cited an example from Karmiloff-Smith (1980). "*A little boy is walking along. He sees a balloon man. The balloon m ... he asks for a balloon and goes off happily*" (p. 37). In the example, the second *he* does not refer to *a balloon man*, but it is reserved for the theme, *a little boy*. Frawley and Lantolf explained that this usage of reference means that the speaker, a child, could not provide her narrative for an external addressee, instead addressed to herself as private speech. They claimed that this thematic usage of pronoun exhibits that the speaker is object-regulated.

4) Affective markers: As affective markers, Frawley and Lantolf (1985) took *oh*, *ah*, and *ok* as examples. These expressions release speakers' emotion or feeling. They claimed that these are self-regulatory, because with them "speakers are addressing no one other than themselves" (p. 39).

Frawley and Lantolf (1985) demonstrated self-regulatory behaviors in L2 users' narratives. Their attempt was meaningful in that with a Vygotskian perspective they provided language-mediated self-regulatory expressions in L2 users' narratives and categorized them. However, their explanations of the self-regulatory nature of certain expressions raise questions. First, not all metacomments on a story are self-regulatory, because they often play a role in providing narratives effectively. A narrative is considered to consist of components from three levels: narrative, meta-narrative, and para-narrative

(McCafferty, 1998). Metacomments may be a part of meta-narrative. For example, there is often an evaluation component in narrative, so using perspective markers, a type of metacomments, may be an integral of the narrative. As a alternative, the possibility of multi-functions in metacomments and discourse markers in narratives needs to be taken into account. Second, classifying past tense and present progressive aspects as self-regulatory is disputable as mentioned before. Third, thematic usage of pronouns may be beyond L2 users' ability to use pronouns. If a L2 user uses a pronoun in a sentence, it often means that he considers previous sentences where its referent appears. However, L2 users cannot often get over the limit of sentences. They are busy in creating a sentence without considering what is beyond the boundary. Therefore, it is possible that their usage of pronouns appears more irregularly.

McCafferty (1992, 1994a, 1994b)

McCafferty classified self-regulatory expressions according to object-, other-, and self-regulation. This classification reflected Wertsch's (1979) theoretical discussion of the order of three types of regulation to sort self-regulatory expressions more closely and to overcome the discussions of self-regulatory expressions in selective discursive phenomena in Frawley and Lantolf (1985).

1) Object-regulation: In this category, narrators' behaviors are being guided by the physical environment. Therefore, object-regulation is more

concerned with describing and naming certain aspects of action and environment in narrative tasks (p. 93). Moreover, these expressions are strategic use of the nature of the task itself and efforts to get a grip on the macrostructure of the tasks. Under the category, McCafferty (1994a) listed the following self-regulatory behaviors.

- Naming characters in the pictures
- Providing dialog
- Counting or labeling objects in the pictures
- Using storyish discourse elements such as creating an imaginary past for a character or starting with *once upon a time*
- Metacomments associated with either some element of the task itself, as in *Think this picture is not good* or task performance, as for example *I can do this in Spanish but not English*.
- Perspectival markers: *I can see a boy walking down the street*.
- Affective markers such as sighs, laughter, and exclamations when produced in responses to either the physical stimulus (the pictures) or a subject's own performance, as in *He is ah asking in ... he have short, Oh boy (laugh) ... Oh, (sigh) in this picture*
- Pronominalization of a thematized subject, if continued throughout the narrative despite shifts in referent.
- Tense and aspect

(McCafferty, 1994a, p. 425)

2) Other-regulation: There are two forms in the category: metacomments – questions addressed to the researcher and self-directed questions. He called these forms as other-regulation because narrators depend on a dialogically-based linguistic structure for seeking self-regulation.

3) Self-regulation: These forms, all metacomments, indicate that a subject has suddenly understood or mastered a source of difficulty regarding some aspect of the task. *Five monkeys are playing with a man—**no**—the man is angry.*

The problem of McCafferty's classification is related to the use of the object-, other-, self-regulation system in classifying self-regulatory behaviors and naming these behaviors as private speech. Labeling self-regulation to expressions while sudden understanding or mastery occurs is not in the same level of object- and other-regulation. They are forms of relief that are resultant behaviors after solving problems. However, self-regulatory behaviors occur in the middle of difficulties in performing tasks. Next, naming self-regulatory verbal expressions as private speech is to overemphasize the self-regulatory function from their multi functions and to change the fundamental characteristic of the expressions from social speech to private speech.

Other Self-Regulatory Categories

By now categories of self-regulatory expressions based on a Vygotskian perspective have been presented. However, if the overall procedure of L2 speaking is considered and the assumed constraint of verbal expressions with linguistic meaning is eliminated, it is easy to find other self-regulatory behaviors. The first candidates are pauses (Dechert, Mohle, & Raupach, 1984; Garcia & Pintrich, 1994). Pauses are used to take time that speakers are able to use for several purposes. As metacognitive processes, pauses allow for planning and

monitoring (Wiese, 1984). Fillers are sounds that have no semantic meaning and function similarly to pauses. Therefore, filled pauses and silent pauses were used together to investigate L2 speaking in previous studies (Mohle, 1984).

Repetition is a re-occurrence of an utterance or some parts of the utterance. Tempted to divide monitoring into two types, pre-articulatory monitoring and post-articulatory monitoring, Wiese (1984) grouped repetition with pauses in that “they would facilitate monitoring of utterances in the planning stage” (Wiese, 1984, p. 18). He supposed that corrections would be evidence for post-articulatory monitoring.

L1 self-regulatory behaviors in L2 tasks are one of self-regulatory behaviors. Anton and DiCamilla (1998) mentioned that L2 learners used L1 in performing an L2 collaborative writing task. They argued that L1 used both for scaffolding and intersubjectivity in the interpsychological plane and for regulating one’s own mental activity in the intrapsychological plane. In the latter case, they viewed that L2 is private speech, the externalized forms of inner speech.⁵

Self-Regulatory Gestures

In the early stage of first language acquisition, gesture is observable before language, i.e., children under the age of two often use their hands for pointing at objects, for which, an expression is later used (McCafferty, 1998; Vygotsky,

⁵ Wells (1998) basically agreed with the positive role of using L1 in L2 tasks; however, he commented that the nature and the goal of the L2 task must be considered.

1986). McNeill (1992) concluded that speech and gesture arise together, ontogenetically, from about age two years onwards.

McCafferty (1998) argued that gestures are used for self-regulation, sometimes with private speech and sometimes without. The concept of self-regulatory gesture derived from McNeill's concept of communicative dynamism, "the extent to which the message at a given point is pushing the communication forward" (McCafferty, 1998, p. 77), and his definition of the situation in which a gesture occurs: "a gesture should occur exactly where the information conveyed is relatively unpredictable, inaccessible, and/or discontinuous" (McCafferty, 1998, p. 77). Moreover, the assertion that private speech and gesture are linked together came from McNeill's notion of gesture as a means to reveal the psychological predicate underlying a person's mental process.

Five types of gesture among the gesture types in McNeill (1992) were investigated for their self-regulatory function in McCafferty (1998). The following are the gesture types and a brief description of each.

- Iconics are concrete gestures that simulate or portray movement or objects. They are considered to be the psychological predicates in that they demonstrate important aspects or new information about a certain context.
- Metaphorics have a pictorial nature and convey abstract ideas.
- Beats represent abstract elements and are often used for emphasis.
- Deictics point toward something, sometimes, something abstract.
- Emblems are gestures in a general sense because each has a specific linguistic meaning. For example, if you nod your head up and down, it means 'yes'.

(McCafferty, 1998, pp. 78-80)

McCafferty classified functions of gestures under five types with his previously conceived object-, other-, and self-regulation system (McCafferty, 1992, 1994a, 1994b). Mentioning the possible influences of task differences, cross-cultural differences, and proficiency differences, he concluded that gestures are “integrated with speakers’ efforts at self-expression” (McCafferty, 1998, p. 92).

Overall Summary of Self-Regulation Behaviors

The inventory of L2 self-regulatory behaviors can vary according to the definition of self-regulation. Following Schunk and Zimmerman (1994a), self-regulation is defined broadly as a metacognitive activity to trigger and maintain cognitive activities to achieve goals. Therefore, goal-directed behaviors emerging through all phases of metacognition—planning, monitoring, and controlling—are included. According to their definition, the following categories are considered self-regulatory behaviors. 1) Temporal variables such as pauses and fillers are primarily related to the planning phase. 2) Repetitions, corrections, and rephrasing occur in the monitoring phase. 3) Language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors in a Vygotskian perspective are included. In the language-mediated behaviors, there are two subcategories: narrative expressions that include naming, counting, and reference and metanarrative expressions that include several discourse markers with question forms. To elaborate, as narrative expressions are

classified by their referential meaning, so if some expressions are more used with their non-referential meaning or social meaning, although they have a referential meaning, they are classified as metanarrative verbal expressions (Schiffrin, 1987).

4) Self-regulatory gestures can also be included in the categories of self-regulatory behaviors because they are another form that has metacognitive function. The types of gesture are supplementary in defining their regulatory function.

Not all self-regulatory behaviors are observable, although most studies in L2 self-regulatory behaviors have focused on observable data (de Guerrero, 1994; Frawley & Lantolf, 1985; McCafferty, 1992, 1994a, 1994b, 1998; Ushakova, 1994). The tradition of providing observable data comes from a Vygotskyan approach that focuses on examples of symbolic mediation.

CONCLUSION

Identifying and categorizing self-regulatory behaviors in L2 users' speaking seem to be fraught with problems as it is easy to criticize and reject proposed categories as implausible because such efforts presume certain theoretical perspectives. The same difficulty can be found in dealing with self-regulation as an explanatory construct rather than a descriptive construct (Zimmerman, 1994).

However, if the analysis of self-regulatory behaviors can be based on concrete data and the range of factors influencing L2 users' self-regulation is

broad, the weakness of plausibility and the criticism of possible artificiality can be reduced to an acceptable level. Therefore, understanding L2 users' self-regulatory behaviors within the social context in which they occur and describing that context is helpful. In this sense, several sociolinguistic concepts are worthwhile to get attention.

Goudena (1987) and McCafferty (1994a) claimed that private speech may have social function and Winsler and Diaz (1995) reported that a group of studies showed the variance of young children's use of private speech according to the social context. Considering that private speech is a form of self-regulatory behavior, it is possible that other self-regulatory behaviors have a social function. The function needs to be investigated under systematic consideration of the context in which the behaviors occur (Kronk, 1994). In this respect Gumperz's (1992) analysis of verbal communication and Goffman's (1974) concept of "frame" are helpful, because L2 self-regulatory behaviors can be used as contextualization cues and give a situated meaning in an interactive situation that is more understandable with "frame" concept (Kendon, 1992; Schiffrin, 1996). In a Vygotskyan perspective, social context has also been considered important representing the interpsychological plane that plays a primary role in the development of self-regulation (Wertsch, 1985).

As individuals live in different environments while developing their self-regulation, individual differences in self-regulation also need to be considered. Frawley referred to this difference as "style of control" (Frawley, 1997, p. 182). At the same time, differences in the usage of self-regulation behaviors between

using L1 and using L2 are noteworthy because speakers often exhibit different speaking patterns (Mohle, 1984).

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHOD

This study investigated the following research questions: 1) What kinds of self-regulatory behaviors do adult L2 users use?, 2) How are adult self-regulatory behaviors interpreted in a social context? How do adult L2 users respond to the social interpretation of their behaviors?, and 3) How are self-regulatory behaviors related to L2 communication strategies? In attempting to answer these questions, this chapter presents descriptions of participants, procedure, data preparation, and data analysis. The essential components of the methodology of this study were aimed to replicate the methodology of previous L2 private speech studies in which L2 narrative data were obtained but to add more data, including think-aloud protocols, interviews, and transcripts of oral classroom presentations.

PARTICIPANTS

Participants were eight Korean graduate students who were enrolled in a large university in the southern United States during the fall semester 2000 and spring semester 2001. The following table shows their biographical information.

Table 3.1: Biography of Participants

Name ⁶	Gender	Age	Year to USA	Major
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⁶ In order to protect their privacy, all names in this study are pseudonyms.

Jin-Su	Male	31	1997	Social studies
Tae-In	Male	29	1999	Science
Hong-Chang	Male	28	2000	Science
Ho-Lyn	Male	30	2000	Science
Ji-Seong	Male	33	1998	Social studies
June-Hee	Male	32	2000	Social studies
Ki-Myeong	Male	31	1998	Science
Su-Beom	Male	30	1999	Social studies

Procedures for Inviting Participants

The first thing to be considered was how to identify participants among Korean learners of English who were more interested in speaking in English than other Korean learners. This was an important consideration because I am Korean, and it was easy for me as the researcher of this study to interact and interview them. As I have similar cultural background, I could more easily understand what they told me in terms of their thoughts, feelings, and other cultural aspects of their verbal/non-verbal behaviors.⁷ Their interests in speaking in English were considered because those interests might make them actively involved in this study and provide more plentiful results.

⁷ My approach can be categorized as emic perspective (the insider's perspective). However, in order to get culturally independent scientific description and analysis, I have considered etic perspective (the outsider's perspective), too.

When I started to contact Korean learners of English, I encountered an expected difficulty. As most Korean people tend not to speak in English in front of other Koreans, it was rather difficult to find participants. As a solution, I tried to find individuals who had an immediate need to improve their spoken English proficiency. Fortunately, I was able to find a group of Korean graduate students who were required to take a course focused on speaking in English academically because they had passed an oral English assessment conditionally.⁸ I contacted the center that administered the course and received permission from its coordinator to approach potential participants.

The total number of Korean graduate students taking the course in fall 2000 was 16.⁹ At first, I tried to contact them through email because their email addresses were the only contact information I had obtained from their teachers. As I thought sending an email would be less aggressive and more comfortable compared to phone calls, I expected that I would get more responses. In addition, in order to get more participation, when I sent an email, I attached a file written in Korean that explained my study and a web address where a web page having the same content was published. The web page in Korean was prepared for those who

⁸ The state where the university is located requires that all public universities in the state provide a program to ensure courses are taught clearly in the English language. To comply, international students including the participants who want to be teaching assistants (TA) or assistant instructors (AI) with student contact have to pass an oral English assessment. The assessment scores are Passed, Conditionally passed, Not Passed.

⁹ The course focuses on the linguistic, cultural and pedagogical aspects of teaching at the university level. Special emphasis is placed on acquiring competence in the discourse of an academic setting, language remediation, the practice of common teaching tasks, and familiarization with teaching styles and academic culture in the USA. (Retrieved from <http://www.utexas.edu/ogs/grs/GRS389T.html>)

could not read the attached Korean file which required the use of specific but popular software to Koreans.

The email was sent in the evening of September 29, 2000. The next morning, one of the 16 potential participants sent a reply to inform me of his willingness to participate, and I responded with a thank-you mail immediately. It seemed that inviting participants would be easier than I had expected. However, his email was the only reply during the next several days.¹⁰ After one week had passed, I sent the same mail again to make sure that all potential participants had read the mail. Again, I received no further response.

After two weeks with only one response, I searched the electronic directory of the university and the directory published by a Korean students' organization that contained contact information on most Korean students attending the university. Among 16 students who were taking the course, I found 15 students' phone numbers. Eight of them were reached. Most of them acknowledged that they had read the mail, but could not send their replies because of several reasons: forgetfulness, their busy schedule, etc. Interestingly, nobody said that they did not want to participate in a task that would require them to speak in English in front of me, a Korean researcher. With these phone calls, fortunately, I was able to obtain agreement from 6 students.¹¹ Now I had 7 participants.

¹⁰ His acceptance to participate in the study was not pure in a sense because one of his reasons to participate was not related to this study. Rather it was personal. During interviews, I felt the similar impressions from a couple of other participants.

¹¹ I felt that some of them agreed a little reluctantly.

Seven students from the 16 Korean candidates enrolled in the course agreed to participate in the study. There were no female student because the only Korean female student who took the course refused to participate in the study, excusing herself for personal reasons. Initially, I had planned to invite eight participants, but I was short one participant. At that point, one of the participants introduced me to a Korean student who had passed the oral English assessment at the beginning of the semester and, therefore, was not required to take the course. This person agreed to participate.

PROCEDURE

In this section, the types of data and the methods of collecting those data are described.

Narrative Data

The meeting schedule with the participants to collect narrative data was spread throughout a semester because of their busy schedules and time conflicts. I met each participant separately. On the first meeting with each participant, I explained the purpose of the study, presented the consent form, and asked them to sign the form if they agreed to proceed. All participants agreed, although some of them were rather reluctant about being videotaped.

In the first meeting, participants performed two narrative tasks that were designed to elicit their narrative, first, in English and, then, in Korean. They were

asked to tell a story to an imaginary audience.¹² During their performance, all verbal and nonverbal behaviors were recorded with a tape recorder and a camcorder. I met the participants in my office in a library of the university or at my house where their performances would be undisturbed although there were occasional phone calls.

Picture Narration Task

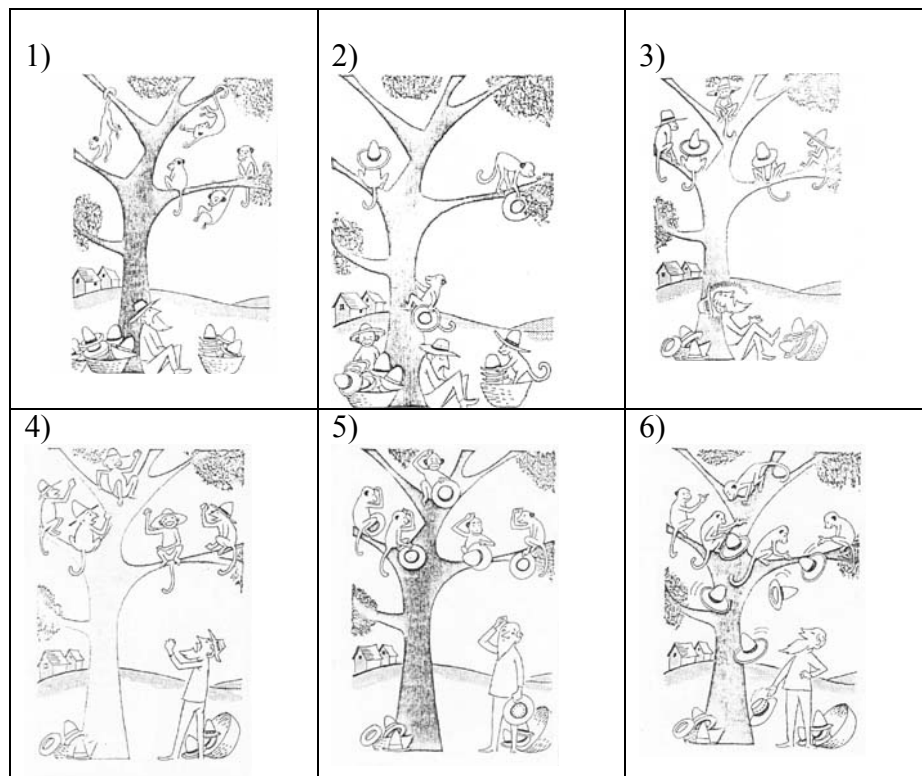
In this task each participant was asked to construct narratives based on a series of sequential drawings. I explained how to do the task with a different set of sequential drawings that I had created with the same format. Participants performed the task first, in English, then, in Korean. They performed the task in my presence. Therefore, I could be identified as a passive conversation partner, in that I avoided initiating conversation, but responded to the participants' initiation, if any, as little as possible. This aspect of the researcher's role in the task is different from that in McCafferty (1994, 1998). In his studies, the researcher's role was different from that of a normal conversational partner because the participants were instructed not to talk to the researcher during the task. He argued that his setting of the task might be helpful in letting them produce private speech more often than other settings. However, regardless of his instruction to his participants not to talk to the researcher during the task, his presence may have fundamentally changed the functions of self-regulatory behaviors. The presence

¹² I used the word "narrative" to explain their tasks at first, but changed my wording to "story" because they were not familiar with "narrative" and "narration."

of a tape recorder would have had the same effect, adding a social function to those behaviors.

The following wordless pictures used in McCafferty (1992, 1994, 1998) were also used for my task.¹³

Figure 3.1: Story of a Hat Seller and Mischievous Monkeys



¹³ I express my gratitude to McCafferty. He sent to me two different sets of materials, the pictures of a hat seller and monkeys and the Pear movie for my study.

Each participant was given six 8x11 pages on which one frame of the story appeared one at a time and was asked to narrate each picture in English first. After they turned over a new picture, they were asked not to go back to previous pictures, the purpose being, simply, to make the task more difficult. After finishing their narration in English, they performed the same task in Korean. The reason for them to narrate first in English was to gather data under a more difficult situation and to prevent any possibility of immediate L1 transfer.¹⁴ In order to record their oral performance, a tape recorder, Sony TCM-359V, with a microphone, Optimus 33-3013, was used. The microphone was put on a table. A camcorder, Sony DCR-TRV320, with a tripod was used for videotaping.

Narrative Recall Task

In this task, the participants watched a wordless six-minute video, entitled *The Pear Story* (Chafe, 1980), depicting an episode in which a boy steals a pear basket from a pear picker who does not notice the theft. This material was also used in McCafferty (1998). The wordless story is chosen in this study as an input device to elicit L2 oral narration in the participants' own words with an advantage in controlling topic and sequence.

The Pear Story

The film begins with a man picking pears on a ladder in a tree. He descends the ladder, kneels, and dumps the pears from the pocket of an

¹⁴ Some of participants admitted that their narration in English influenced their narration in Korea later.

apron he is wearing into one of three baskets below the tree. He removes a bandana from around his neck and wipes off one of the pears. Then he returns to the ladder and climbs back into the tree.

Toward the end of this sequence we hear the sound of a goat, and when the picker is back in the tree a man approaches with a goat on a leash. As they pass by the baskets of pears, the goat strains toward them, but is pulled past by the man and the two of them disappear in the distance.

We see another closeup of the picker at his work, and then we see a boy approaching on a bicycle. He coasts in toward the baskets, stops, gets off his bike, looks up at the picker, puts down his bike, walks toward the baskets, again looking at the picker, picks up a pear, puts it back down, looks once more at the picker, and lifts up a basket full of pears. He puts the basket down near his bike, lifts up the bike and straddles it, picks up the basket and places it on the rack in front of his handlebars, and rides off. We again see the man continuing to pick pears.

The boy is now riding down the road, and we see a pear fall from the basket on his bike. Then we see a girl on a bicycle approaching from the other direction. As they pass, the boy turns to look at the girl, his hat flies off, and the front wheel of his bike hits a rock. The bike falls over, the basket falls off, and the pears spill out onto the ground. The boy extricates himself from under the bike, and brushes off his leg.

In the meantime we hear what turns out to be the sound of a paddleball, and then we see three boys standing there, looking at the bike boy on the ground. The three pick up the scattered pears and put them back in the basket. The bike boy sets his bike upright, and two of the other boys lift the basket of pears back onto it. The bike boy begins walking his bike in the direction he was going, while the three other boys begin walking off in the other direction.

As they walk by the bike boy's hat on the road, the boy with the paddleball sees it, picks it up, turns around, and we hear a loud whistle as he signals to the bike boy. The bike boy stops, takes three pears out of the basket, and holds them out as the other boy approaches with the hat. They exchange the pears and the hat, and the bike boy keeps going while the boy with the paddleball runs back to his two companions, to each of whom he hands a pear. They continue on, eating their pears.

The scene now changes back to the tree, where we see the picker again descending the ladder. He looks at the two baskets, where earlier there were three, points at them, backs up against the ladder, shakes his head, and tips up his hat. The three boys are now seen approaching, eating their pears. The picker watches them pass by, and they walk off into the distance.

(Chafe, 1980, p. xiii)

Immediately after watching the video, each participant was asked to retell the story in English first, then in Korean while being audiotaped and videotaped.

After finishing all tasks, I asked participants whether they wanted to view their performance in order to help them remember what they had done during the tasks. It would be helpful for them in reviewing their thoughts on their performances during the interview session that would follow. Some participants watched their performance, but some did not. Those who declined confessed that they did not want to view the video because it would be too humbling. Some participants' schedule did not allow time to see their performances. In addition, the loss of some parts of my notes prevented my providing the information on who watched it and who did not. However, one or two among the eight participants watched their taped performance.

Oral Classroom Presentation

Seven participants had presented two oral presentations as course requirements, and their presentations had been videotaped. In their presentations, they introduced and explained some key concepts in their academic fields, supposing other classmates in the course were undergraduate students in their field. Their presentations took about five minutes.

I asked them whether I could borrow the tapes and analyze their presentations. Six participants agreed and gave me their tapes.¹⁵ The one participant who had not taken the course because of his pass on the exam gave me a tape in which his presentation for the exam was recorded. Therefore, seven oral presentations were obtained.

Interviews

Why did I add the procedures of think-aloud and interviews in this study, when these procedures had not in previous studies of L2 private speech? First, I wanted to see whether those behaviors categorized as private speech in previous studies could be seen as self-regulatory only and whether participants were aware of them. Second, I wanted to know the participants' thoughts on self-regulation and its realized verbal and non-verbal forms. More broadly, I wanted to know their thoughts on their use of English in a social context and on their efforts to perform the tasks successfully.

First Interviews with Think-Aloud Protocol

Two or three days after the participants performed the narration tasks, I interviewed them in Korean.¹⁶ The first interview had two phases: a think-aloud phase and an interview phase. In the think-aloud phase, participants watched their

¹⁵ One participant did not give his presentation tape because he had not received it from his teacher. He said he would give it to me if he received it, but he never did.

¹⁶ There was one exception. June Hee was interviewed a little more than one month after he performed the narrative tasks. Therefore, his think-aloud data may have some limitations.

performance with its transcript and said whatever came to mind about their behaviors during the tasks. They were given the remote control of the camcorder so they could stop and play it back. If they did not say anything for a while, I encouraged them to say something, with occasional questions. After the think-aloud phase, I interviewed them, in an open style, about topics that had been raised while I had transcribed their narratives or that had come up during the think-aloud phase. All the first interviews were audiotaped and transcribed.

I used a think-aloud protocol, or verbal report, to gain insight into their metacognition (Levine & Reves, 1998). As self-regulation is considered one example of metacognitive processes, this method is appropriate in accessing what we cannot directly observe in the narrative data. In L2 strategies studies, this method has been used widely (Cohen, 1994). At the end of the think-aloud protocol, I interviewed the participants, with the purpose of uncovering and exploring the underpinnings of their attitudes, thoughts, and feelings in their use of English (Arksey & Knight, 1999). During the meeting, I was very careful to create a comfortable and relaxed environment because I was asking the participants to talk about what they did in English, something that might be humbling to some participants.¹⁷

¹⁷ This interpretation or guess might be a result of my bias, but most of the participants often grinned bashfully during talking about their errors or mistakes. One of them said that he was in a cold sweat during our meeting.

Second Interviews

The second interviews with each participant were made four to ten months following the first interviews. The timing of these interviews did not seem to matter because the main questions in the interview concerned participants' general thoughts and feeling about using English. Due to personal reasons, I interviewed six participants face-to-face and two participants through email.

In the face-to-face interviews, I gave participants the hard copy of the transcripts of their narratives, with an ESL professional's comments added. As a token of my appreciation for their help with my study, I also provided a zip diskette that contained sound files of their narratives and a PDF version of the transcripts and graphic files of the story "A Hat Seller and Mischievous Monkeys."

I prepared some questions to lead the interviews in an effective way, but did not limit the interviews to these questions. I also asked some questions about their academic backgrounds and their future career plans and extended these questions to their learning and using English, if appropriate (Appendix E).

DATA PREPARATION

English narrative data, including the oral classroom presentations, were transcribed and digitalized. The first interviews were transcribed and the second interviews were noted and summarized.

Performance Data

I transcribed the participants' narratives while listening to the audiotapes of their narratives. I applied the convention of Gumperz (1992), using these transcripts for the first interviews. In order to avoid any errors in the transcripts, I asked the participants to check the transcriptions during their first interviews. Their corrections were applied.

While preparing the English narrative data for analysis, I decided to measure the lengths of narratives and lengths of pauses in narratives. Using a Mac computer with Adobe Premiere in a lab at my university, I digitalized the English narratives and classroom presentations and created sound files of each. With sound software, CoodEdit, I measured lengths of narratives and pauses in narratives. I also had a chance to check the narrative transcripts again and corrected some errors.

After all narrative transcripts were ready, I asked an English speaker to check the transcripts while listening to the narratives.

Interview Data

With the help of a Korean, I transcribed the first interviews and imported the transcripts into N5, qualitative software, to analyze them systematically.

I did not transcribe the second interviews, instead, writing only key words and phrases while listening to them.

DATA ANALYSIS

Although the goal of data analysis, to identify and explain the participants' self-regulatory behaviors, was not changed, the analysis procedure was modified and new components were added during this study when such action seemed appropriate and useful for data analysis.

Understanding the Participants' Background and Summarizing Basic Information for Analysis

Although each participant had an apparently similar background in learning and using English, there were differences when I examined their data more closely. To know their backgrounds is to know the social context in which they have learned and used English. The theoretical basis of this logic is easily found in the Vygotskian approach in which the interpsychological domain, social context, is primary and the intrapsychological domain, where individual behaviors can be found, is secondary in their genesis (Diaz & Berk, 1992; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Vygotsky, 1986; Wertsch, 1985; Zivin, 1979).

I also summarized quantitative data from their performances such as length of narratives, number of words in each task, and lengths of pauses. I analyzed those data relevant to the participants' self-regulatory behaviors.

Identifying and Categorizing Self-Regulatory Expressions in Narratives

I identified and categorized self-regulatory expressions in the narrative data. In order to identify and categorize those expressions, I referred to Wertsch (1979) and other studies in L2 private speech (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985; McCafferty, 1992), but did not limit my analysis of self-regulatory behaviors within their definition and categorization of private speech. Through repeated examination of narratives, I checked to overcome any subjectivity in my identification and categorization.

Analyzing Self-Regulatory Expressions in Narratives

While analyzing narrative data, I regularly met with an ESL teacher, a specialist in speaking and pronunciation, and tried to get important features from the narrative data that are salient to English speakers. This arrangement was useful to me for analyzing grammaticality and appropriateness of narrative data as well.

I also pinpointed relevant parts in think-aloud and interview data concerning participants' self-regulatory behaviors. I analyzed those behaviors based on these data. The participants' gestures were also mentioned in this analysis.

Raising Concepts from Think-Alouds and Interviews

I listened to the tapes and read the transcribed data several times and identified key concepts that seemed pertinent to explain self-regulatory behaviors in social contexts.

Using these concepts I then synthesized an explanation of the participants' self-regulatory behaviors and usage in certain social contexts.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Although there are intrinsic limitations, or theoretical indifferences, in maintaining validity and reliability completely in qualitative research (Schwandt, 2001), I made every effort to enhance validity and reliability of data and data analysis in this study.

I transcribed narratives and accompanied gestures based on audiotapes and videotapes that were recorded during the performances. Moreover, the final version of each transcript of narrative data was obtained after several checks by the participant, an English speaker, and me. In the first interview, each participant was given the first transcript of his narratives that I had made. When they found any errors in the transcript and provided corrections, I corrected the errors. Afterwards, an English speaker had a chance to listen to all English narratives and read the transcripts in order to discuss participants' narratives with me. I corrected any errors found in this process.

I interviewed participants twice within a certain period of time. In the second interviews, I checked what had been said in the first interview and confirmed key concepts that I had elicited from the first interview. This confirmation can be referred to as triangulation.

When I analyzed certain data and discussed them, I described the context in which those data appear. This is a technique to overcome the culture-boundness and language-boundness of the data.

Finally, although my presence in the task situation might have had an effect on the participants' behaviors in providing their narratives, the so-called "observer effect" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996, p. 463), this effect was not considered a limitation here because I was interested in how the participants' narrative performance investigated in this study would show signs of responding to a social context.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter I present the results of analyses aimed at informing the first two of my research questions:

1. What kinds of self-regulatory behaviors do adult L2 users use?
2. How are adult self-regulatory behaviors interpreted in social context?
How do adult L2 users respond to the social interpretation of their behaviors?

I present the discussion for the third research question, the relationship between self-regulatory behaviors and L2 communication strategies, in the next chapter. Before addressing these questions directly however, in the first section below I provide details of the participants' biographical information.

PARTICIPANTS' BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

There were eight participants in this study. Through my many contacts with the eight participants, I came to know some of their background in learning and using English.

Jin-Su

Of all participants, Jin-Su was the only one who had successfully passed the ITA exam¹⁸ without the condition that required the others to take a communication course. His fluent English proficiency was apparent when compared to the other participants. He stated that he participated in this study because of the chance it provided to improve his English.

Jin-Su had finished his master's degree at another university in the U.S. and had moved to the current university to pursue his doctoral degree in the year when I started to collect data. When working on his master's degree, he had had to make many oral presentations as course requirements. This experience had given him a chance to practice his English. Moreover, he had had a chance to engage in research with a professor and to help write an article. In the course of their collaboration, he had had many discussions with the professor. At the end of the semester, he presented research results in front of more than 40 colleagues.

At first, I was anxious, as I expected, but as time passed, I felt more comfortable and was able to slow down to get back my own speed. My gestures became natural. I walked around and could see people's faces one by one. It happened! It was a huge progress.

He said that, without question, this experience was the best thing for his English.

¹⁸ This exam is taken by international students who want to be hired in any position with student contact.

He stated that he has been interested in his pronunciation of English for a long time. At first, he tried to pronounce as American speakers do. To Koreans, American speakers are heard as trilling a lot, and so some Korean learners of English try to imitate this perceived style. However, soon Jin-Su concluded that he could not pronounce native-like American English regardless of the amount of his effort. He also felt he was losing national self-respect by adopting such a “just-following” attitude. Then, for a while, he was interested in British English pronunciation. Finally, he had reached the conclusion: “I as a non-native speaker of English cannot pronounce perfectly like native speakers. Then, let’s pronounce clearly with my own accent.”

He was very interested in grammatical correctness and linked it to professionalism. He recollected that when he was in Korea, he criticized the grammar-oriented teaching style in English education. At that time, grammar seemed to him to be unimportant. However, as he acquired English fluency more and as he had chances to use English in real situations, he came to realize that acquiring grammatical knowledge is very important to be sure of producing appropriate English utterances. When he looked at other Koreans’ speaking in English from such a perspective, he found that they made many grammatical mistakes even though they seemed to be fluent.

In the course of the study, when he found grammatical mistakes in his narrative performances, he commented on each one, and showed some disappointment. His goal, that of becoming a professor in the U.S., made him aware of this aspect continuously. He said he has tried to imitate his professors’

and TV anchors' speaking style and found that they seldom made mistakes. He said that his limited interaction with English speakers in daily life made him focus on professors' and anchors' speech. One approach he had developed was to memorize what they say and use these expressions when he spoke. He thought his approach was effective.

Tae-In

When the 2000 spring semester was about to begin, Tae-In moved to a dormitory of the university from his apartment where he had lived alone. The main reason for the move was to have more chances to interact with English speakers. As his roommate was an American, he had accomplished his goal. During the semester, at his roommate's urging, the two sometimes went out together. He admitted that his agreement to their outings was partly related to his purpose of practicing English more and acquiring more knowledge of American culture.

During the second interview in August 2001, he laughed while saying that he had thought he would be able to speak English fluently within one or two years after arriving in the U.S. According to his self-judgment of his fluency, however, his estimation was that he was still not close to his goal. He felt some limitations in acquiring English fluency notwithstanding his investment in practicing. I added a question to this context, asking whether his feeling of the limitations was related to his major, mentioning that some people accept that people in the science fields

learn less English than people in the liberal arts or social studies do. His answer was no.¹⁹

When I asked about his future, he said that he wanted to find a job here in the U.S., but that it would be difficult because most jobs in his field are related to national security of the country. Therefore, as a non-citizen of the U.S., he would have less options in applying for jobs. He acknowledged that English would be “a survival skill” in his career in this country and that English was more than a foreign language to him.

Tae-In seemed to be sensitive in his contacts with people and to take interlocutors’ feelings or conditions into account. Particularly, when interacting with other Koreans in his department who were all older than he, he was careful not to impose on them. This also showed in the narrative tasks. When I asked why he stated out loud the number of each picture, i.e., *picture number one*, *picture number two*, he answered that although the aim was partly to give himself more time by counting, he also considered that numbering the pictures would be helpful to me in tracking and analyzing his narrative data.

His ability to speak in English had become a concern when he taught Korean to an English lecturer when he was an undergraduate student. He had to stop his teaching soon because he could not teach in English. The second incident was a vacation trip to Los Angeles while still a graduate student in Korea. While

¹⁹ For this question, another participant said yes with laugh, and he added that finding a reason of their poor English proficiency in their majors might be an excuse.

staying for two weeks in Los Angeles, he felt he would definitely need to improve his spoken English ability.

After he had come to the U.S. to study, during his vacation trip in the summer of the following year, he was in an accident. His car rolled down from a road, but, fortunately, he and his friend suffered no more injury than a few bruises. When it happened, he was only able to use some basic expressions in English. He felt depressed. Mentioning the fluent English of some German travelers who helped him and his friend in the accident, he said that language differences between Korean and English might make his learning English more difficult than it was for German speakers.

Hong-Chang

When I met Hong-Chang to return the tape of his class presentation, he was wearing a modernized but traditional Korean costume. I was surprised and asked, “Don’t you feel any pressure from people in this foreign country?” “I don’t care.” “Do you wear this outfit often?” “Yes, I do.”²⁰ As I came to see, this attitude was symptomatic of his general attitude to using English.

Although he was able to work as a research assistant (RA), Hong-Chang wanted to speak and practice English more, so he applied for a teaching assistant (TA) position that required student contact. Therefore, he had to take the ITA exam, and had passed it with the condition to take the communication course. He

²⁰ I also have similar clothes, but being conscious of people’s looks, I have worn them only two times when there were special events.

showed a high interest in the course and often cited his teacher's comments on his speaking. He said that he had never taken such a speaking course before, so he did not know what kinds of problems he had when he spoke in English. Finding problems in his speaking through the course was a help to him.

While performing the narration tasks for the study, he moved his hands a lot. Although he said he did not usually notice it, he admitted to such behavior, saying that his friends sometimes called him "over-man (a man with exaggerated gestures)" jokingly because his gestures were often exaggerated. He seemed to accept such kidding without any negative feeling.

Like other participants whose majors were in the sciences, Hong-Chang also wanted to obtain an academic position in the U.S., if possible. Therefore, improving English ability was very important to him. His emphasis was on the writing skills needed to write academic articles and on presentation skills needed to communicate to colleagues.

Ho-Lyn

In our first interview, Ho-Lyn stated his belief that if an individual comes to a country in which English is spoken earlier than someone else, he should be more fluent than a person who comes later. The semester when I met him for this study was his second semester in the university. Therefore, there were now new Korean students just entering in the fall semester. He lived with one of them and felt that he would need to show his fluency. However, he did not know an

expression that his roommate knew, “break the bill.” He confessed that he did not say much in English in front of Koreans, particularly if younger, because they seemed more fluent than he.

In the second interview, he stated that he now planned to live in the U.S. after he graduated and to get married. Consequently, English became a hotter issue for him. He had practiced English by watching videos since his decision and he sometimes called instead of using emails, which he had chosen in the past, when there was any need to contact customer services. He was willing to force himself to practice his English more after his decision.

One response that surprised me is that he stated that while taking courses in his major, he had never asked a question of his teachers. I asked why. His answer was that he did not want to bother other students. He said that his painful efforts in asking a question and his worries about understanding the teacher’s response would be agonizing to them. I asked whether he had had such experiences in the past. He said, “No, but I believe it would happen.” He added that as a solution, he often visited his teachers at their offices alone to ask questions. He did not have to worry about the presence of other people in that situation. Being very interested, I asked a follow-up question: “What about your ITA class? You also did not ask questions?” “Sure, I did.” There, he asked questions because he felt other students in the class would understand, as would the teacher, because such practice was one of the goals of the course. The teacher in the course explicitly recommended that he and other students increase interactions in the class.

Related to his differentiated participation, Ho-Lyn also showed similar sensitivities in working with other students for class projects. In one project, he played the role of a leader on the project. The team consisted of three Koreans including him and one student from a country in the Middle East. The fact that the other two Koreans had failed the ITA exam that he had passed, gave him self-confidence in speaking English. In addition, he was familiar with the content of the course. Although the student from the Middle East was fluent in English, Ho-Lyn did not seem bothered. He seemed to finish the project successfully. By contrast, in another project, the opposite phenomenon happened. On the team, there were four students: a student from the Middle East, a student from Central America, and two Koreans. The other Korean was younger than he was but had come to the U.S. one semester earlier and was more fluent than he was. Furthermore, the content that the team had to deal with was not familiar to him. While he was working on the project, he had remained quiet and just followed other members' leads.

In the fall 2001 semester, he needed to do interviews in order to be considered for a job. He had heard that in the interviews he would need to ask more questions than the interviewers because it would be more urgent to him than to them that he be hired. For that reason, he showed more interest in using English in the second interview. When he returned from Korea after his stay during the summer, as one of his efforts to practice, he returned to work in a hamburger shop where he had to use English to serve customers.

Ji-Seong

Ji-Seong had worked in a store to earn money, at the same time earning a chance to practice English. Most employees in the store were friendly. He talked often with an elderly female co-worker about social issues in the U.S. As she was patient to listen to him, he felt comfortable with her. However, there were difficulties in working there. When his supervisor gave directions to do some work, he sometimes did things wrong. As a result, although other sections in his performance evaluation were highly-rated, his communication ability was evaluated as rather low. As he was able to make money and practice English, he was willing to persevere at the job.

He noted that in his second year in the U.S., he could not talk in English while maintaining eye contact with his interlocutors, but since his third year, he had tried to maintain eye contact. He looked for the reason of the change of eye contact behavior in his challenging attitude.

After graduation, Ji-Seong planned to work in a consulting company in the U.S., if he could find such a position. Generally, the English fluency needed for such a job would be much higher than his current fluency, but he seemed to feel not too worried about his lack of fluency because he felt there are boundaries to English usage according to jobs and their environment, and that if he could clarify what would be needed in his future job, he would be able to prepare for it. As spoken English would be more focused on in the area of his future jobs than written English, he was interested in how to improve spoken English fluency.

June-Hee

June-Hee complained that he had fewer chances to learn English than expected when he came to the U.S. for study. He had no classes that required his active participation in his first semester. All courses he took were lecture-oriented and all he needed was to take notes following the teachers' lectures. Taking the ITA class was the only regular time to learn and practice English for him. In addition, as he was very busy in covering his academic courses, he did not have time to focus on improving his English. Therefore, he hoped that his TA position would place him in an office that was shared by an English speaker.

June-Hee planned to remain in the U.S. for five more years to finish his doctoral degree. To the question of whether he would look for a job after his graduation, he answered no. However, he added that if he wanted to get a job here in the U.S., then English would be the most important factor that would affect his job.

He evaluated his English ability as average among Korean students in his department, but he stated that his judgment of his ability would change according to the situation in which he found himself. When he spoke in English, he said he focused more on content than on structures, related perhaps to another comment in which he stated he sometimes felt that he just listed words in his speech.

Ki-Myeong

Ki-Myeong remembered thinking he had no problem in his English when he had been in Korea. As he had spent late hours in his classes, he had had little time to attend private institutions for improving his English. However, his TOEFL score was good even after his military service when it was difficult to find time to study. Thus, he had anticipated that he would not have problems in English upon his arrival to study in the U.S. He was to be proven wrong when he failed the ITA exam two times. He had excused his first failure as misfortune and due to his evaluators' harshness. When he failed the same exam a second time, he had concluded that there must be something wrong with his English and had listened attentively to the feedback about his English. Furthermore, he took lessons from a private tutor to improve his English.

Contrary to the other participants, he said that he was not conscious of losing his self-esteem when he struggled in speaking English. He added that he did not have such a self-conscious feeling even in front of other Koreans. So, I asked him what he thought about my asking him to participate in the study. His first answer was that he thought it would be a good opportunity to learn about problems in his English. He wanted to get feedback on any particular aspects, especially points not commonly indicated by his ESL teachers, for example, gestures. I developed this topic. "Did you feel uncomfortable about my invitation?" "Frankly, it was tough, but it would be good to give my help to you because I know researchers in the ESL field have difficulties in inviting

participants.” He was the only person of 16 invitees who sent his reply to participate in my study the very next morning after I had sent an invitation email.

Su-Beom

Su-Beom did not like speaking in English in front of other Koreans. When it was required, he used English reluctantly, or he wanted to avoid such cases as much as he could. He thought that it was not desirable to speak in English among Koreans. “That’s my philosophy.” He added, “Although we are in the U.S., we have to speak Korean following our emotional consensus.” Even when he raised his child in the U.S., he said he would practice this principle. When I interviewed him a second time, he stated that he had become a little more comfortable in speaking English in front of other Koreans.

Su-Beom also disliked speaking in English without preparation, because it was likely for him to show his limited English fluency. When he was able to prepare, he tended to prepare many materials. For example, when he as a TA had to explain concepts in statistics for students, he prepared handouts and computer files. In addition, he provided his explanation with a demonstration using computers in a computer lab in order to compensate for his weakness in English. He admitted that his experience as a TA was very helpful for improving his English.

Su-Beom expected that he would be in the U.S. for three or four more years to finish his doctoral degree. After his graduation, he planned to look for a

teaching position or a research position, so he admitted English would be of great importance. Although he agreed that English is an international language, he emphasized that English is a tool rather a goal in his career.

THE DESCRIPTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS' NARRATIVES

In this section, I provide the participants' narratives and their descriptive statistics to present a general picture of the participants' performance. The eight participants provided nine English narratives for the Picture Narration Task and eight narratives for the Narrative Recall Task.²¹ The length of the narratives, the number of words and tokens in each narrative are as follows:

Table 4.1: Length and Words in the Participants' Narratives

Tasks Names	Picture Narration Task			Narrative Recall Task		
	Length ²²	Words ²³	Token ²⁴	Length	Words	Token
Jin-Su	217	129	335	241	141	361
Tae-In	141	88	244	202	108	334
Hong-Chang	124	75	181	276	101	368
Ho-Lyn	171	78	198	299	134	487
Ji-Seong	256	88	272	266	103	398
June-Hee	104	66	147	159	104	258
Ki-Myeong	83	54	148	144	72	211
Su-Beom 1	170	88	228	258	146	598

²¹ Su Beom did the Picture Narration Task twice because the order of pictures in his first try was wrong.

²² The unit of length is seconds.

²³ Derived forms of words were counted separately. However, fillers such as ah, ahm, uh, and uhm are not included.

²⁴ Token is a particular instance of a word. Thus, for example, the preceding sentence has 8 tokens, but contains only 7 words (type), since "a" is used twice. Incomplete words and unrecognized words are not counted, but guessing words are included. Fillers are excluded in the counting.

Su-Beom 2	150	92	236	
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The eight participants spent a different amount of time in performing the tasks, and the total number of words and word tokens were different. However, some facts are common to all the participants: all participants spent more time and used more words in performing the Narrative Recall Task than in performing the Picture Narration Task.

To most of them, these tasks were not familiar. Most of the participants confirmed that not only had they had few chances to do this kind of story telling task in Korean, but also most of them had never performed such tasks in English, either. Therefore, the English narrative tasks in the study were the first attempt for most of them. While being educated in school, Korean students did not have many chances to speak or present orally. For example, activities similar to the show-and-tell session in American schools were hard to find in Korean schools in the past.²⁵

The contents of the tasks were also unfamiliar to the participants. What they were familiar with when they spoke in English were academic matters in their majors, social or political issues often treated in mass media, and American cultural phenomena that had influenced their lives or that were so obvious as to catch their attention. This tendency in their English experience is related to their history of learning English in school settings with formal teaching of English.

²⁵ However, Korean students are more encouraged to speak in school nowadays.

In order to check speech rate, the number of tokens was divided by the length of its narrative. Table 4.2 is the result.

Table 4.2: Tokens per a minute in the Participants' Narratives

Tasks Names	Picture Narration Task	Narrative Recall Task
Jin-Su	93	90
Tae-In	104	99
Hong-Chang	88	80
Ho-Lyn	69	98
Ji-Seong	64	90
June-Hee	85	97
Ki-Myeong	107	88
Su-Beom 1	80	139
Su-Beom 2	94	

Some participants were faster in the Picture Narration Task, but some were the opposite. When I ranked the narratives in each task with the speech rate and compared the ranks in both tasks together, I could not find any patterns except that Tae-In was faster than the other participants in both tasks. Hong-Chang was rather slower. This result might be caused by the rough measurement of the time spent turning pictures in the Picture Narration Task and time for pauses for clarification of the task assignment in both tasks. Their repetition of words in the tasks may be another factor. There are individual differences in repetition and even the same participant showed differences between tasks. Besides, it may be difficult to get speech rates to compare from their narratives because their usage of words was different. However, as they were given the same

materials and asked to do the same tasks, if we consider their narratives as a whole, the calculation of speech rate in this manner and comparison of the results might provide a general idea of their speed in speaking.

In performing the tasks, they used certain words more often than other words. The following table shows the frequent words in their narratives. The full list of words used in their narratives can be found in Appendices C and D.

Table 4.3: Frequent Words in the Tasks²⁶

	Task	Top 10 frequent words
Jin-Su	Picture	the (29), uh (17), ah (13), old (13), to (12), are (11), man (11), monkeys (11), a (10), and (10)
	Movie	the (34), uh (25), ah (18), uhm (18), and (14), pears (12), was (12), to (10), who (10), ahm (8), he (8)
Tae-In	Picture	the (27), a (12), and (11), his (10), monkeys (10), he (9), hat (8), is (7), number (7), picture (7), tree (7)
	Movie	the (44), he (24), so (11), and (10), of (10), pears (10), basket (9), uh (9), his (8), a (7), is (7), pear (7), to (7)
Hong-Chang	Picture	the (30), are (12), ah (11), monkeys (9), uh (9), and (6), hat (6), he (5), his (5), old (5)
	Movie	uh (59), the (45), he (19), pears (16), and (15), of (12), one (12), ah (11), his (11), basket (10)
Ho-Lyn	Picture	the (30), ah (20), uh (14), man (10), monkeys (10), old (9), and (7), with (6), a (5), hat (5), hats (5)
	Movie	uh (68), the (66), hm (32), he (25), and (19), to (18), ah (16), on (16), man (14), a (12), him (12)
Ji-Seong	Picture	the (35), and (23), old (12), he (11), man (11), hats (10), monkeys (8), are (7), tree (6), do (5), get (5), some (5)
	Movie	the (54), he (37), and (31), uh (20), on (16), tree (10), a (8), just (8), pears (8), pick (8), to (8), when (8)
June-Hee	Picture	the (11), is (9), old (8), to (8), chimpanzee (7), and (6), guy (6), hat (6), he (5), his (5), hm (5)

²⁶ The number in the parenthesis is the frequency of the word in the task.

	Movie	the (19), and (11), one (8), she (8), to (8), he (7), is (7), tree (7), farmer (6), three (6)
Ki-Myeong	Picture	the (17), and (8), monkeys (8), old (8), hats (7), tree (7), his (6), man (6), is (5), that (5)
	Movie	the (17), and (12), his (12), pears (10), was (10), he (8), uh (8), on (7), of (6), off (5), that (5)
Su-Beom	Picture 1	the (31), ah (15), man (12), monkeys (12), and (8), on (8), to (8), uh (6), ahm (5), hat (5), in (5), that (5), then (5)
	Picture 2	the (27), man (13), ah (11), ahm (9), his (8), to (8), and (7), hats (7), he (7), monkey (7)
	Movie	the (98), ah (42), and (34), he (32), then (19), is (18), ahm (17), one (16), boy (14), pears (14), to (14)

The most frequent word in both tasks by all the participants is *the*. English speakers in several studies also show the same tendency.²⁷ A non-native speaker of English in McCafferty (1994a) produced *the* the most. There are two exceptions: Hong-Chang's and Ho-Lyn's Narrative Recall Task. In their tasks, *the*

²⁷ The following table shows frequent words used by an adult English speaker in both tasks for my study, one adult English speaker and one adult nonnative speaker for the Picture Task in McCafferty (1994a) and two English speakers in the recall task in the appendix of Chafe (1980). Narrator 1 in Chafe (1980) seems to be a child. Three English speakers who read his or her transcript agreed with this hypothesis. However, the age group of Narrator 2 is rather controversial.

Table: Frequent Words in the Tasks

		Top-10 Frequent Words
Jenny	Picture	The (18), and (16), he (11), monkeys (11), hats (7), man (7), tree (7), his (6), in (5), a (4), all (4), are (4), that (4), their (4)
	Movie	The (27), and (26), pears (17), he (16), a (10), of (10), uhm (9), boy (7), but (7), little (7), that (7), to (7)
McCafferty (1994) Picture	Native speaker	The (14), and (10), he (10), monkeys (9), hats (5), his (5), him (4), to (4), back (3), get (3), that (3)
	Nonnative speaker	The (39), man (15), monkeys (14), are (10), hats (10), and (8), is (7), he (6), to (6), a (5), at (5), down (5), in (5), on (5), they (5)
Chafe (1980) Movie	Narrator 1	And (87), the (68), he (32), a (21), they (21), you (21), then (17), um (14), his (13), pears (13), see (13)
	Narrator 2	The (24), and (18), he (12), a (11), pears (7), was (7), bicycle (6), came (6), on (6), along (5), I (5), in (5)

is the second and *uh* is the first. Hong-Chang often added the schwa sound, /ə/, at the end of words that end with a consonant. Sometimes this sound was interpreted as *uh* when there was a short silence between the words and the sound. Basically Ho-Lyn used fillers many times illustrating his individual style in speaking in English. He also produced many fillers in his class presentation.

The next most frequent words in all narratives are fillers such as *ah*, *ahm*, *hm*, *oh* (for Ki-Myeong and Su-Beom), *uh*, *uhm*, and *um*. This phenomenon is a very notable attribute of native speakers' narratives. Individual differences in using fillers were also found and are shown in Table 4-3. Although Jin-Su was more fluent than the other seven participants, he often used fillers. By contrast, Ji-Seong, June-Hee, and Ki-Myeong used them less.

Other frequent words in the Picture Narration Task are *and*, *are*, *is*, pronouns such as *he* and *his*, and nouns such as *man*, *monkeys*, *hat*, *hats*, which are names of the characters or the objects of the story. *Old* was often used, indicating that the participants used the *the old man* expression many times. Interestingly, *they* or *them*, which may indicate monkeys, does not appear in the top-10 frequent words, but the nonnative speaker in McCafferty (1994a) used *they* and Jenny used *their* in the task.

In the Narrative Recall Task, *and* is a frequent word that competes with *the* and fillers. Three native speakers, Jenny and two English speakers from Chafe (1980) shown in footnote 27, used *and* many times, particularly, the American child, who used it enormously. Pronouns such as *he* and *his* were used frequently, but *him* does not appear in the top-10 word list. Nouns such as *pears*, *basket*, *man*,

farmer, *boy*, and *tree* appeared in the list. The frequent prepositions in the task are *to*, *of*, and *on*. Contrary to the Picture Narration Task, *was* appears in the frequent word list.

With regard to their understanding of the story, all the participants showed that they did not understand the story completely. In the Picture Narration Task, the old man is seen as realizing eventually that the monkeys are imitating his every action and uses his knowledge to get his hats back. Only three participants, Tae-In, Hong-Chang, and Ji-Seong, understood this key point. According to the transcript, Ki-Myeong seemed to understand the point, but his performance in Korean showed his sudden understanding of the point during the Korean task. As Su-Beom did not know it, he even commented on the lack of logical sequence in the pictures. In the Narrative Recall Task, Ho-Lyn did not recognize that a boy with a bike had stolen one basket of pears because he had assumed the boy was the son of the man who had picked the pears. June-Hee thought that the boy who had stolen the pears and the girl with a bike were one and the same person.

SELF-REGULATORY BEHAVIORS IN ACTION

Considering that self-regulatory behaviors are goal-directed and the participants gave their efforts to producing better narratives despite task difficulties, it is not surprising that there were many self-regulatory behaviors in their performances. Those behaviors seem to be related to metacognitive

processes, planning, monitoring, and controlling processes. Some of the behaviors are language-mediated to gain self-regulation.

The case for seeing behaviors caused by metacognitive processes as self-regulatory is stated by Paris and Winograd (1990): “Metacognition helps to orchestrate cognitive aspects of problem solving” to achieve a goal (p. 18). This self-management is manifested “in the plans that learners make before tackling a task, in the adjustments they make as they work, and in the revisions they make afterwards” (Paris & Winograd, 1990, p. 18).

The following in-depth investigation of one of the participants’ narratives will give a more complete picture of the way in which self-regulatory behaviors work in L2 narrative tasks. The first transcript is Ho-Lyn’s narrative of the first and second pictures in the Picture Narration Task and the second is the beginning of Ki-Myeong’s Narrative Recall Task. The length of pauses is marked inside brackets. The unit length is one-tenth of a second. Gestures are numbered in the narratives and appear at the bottom of each narrative. The Korean narratives follow their English narratives. The English translation of the Korean narratives are provided.

Ho-Lyn’s English and Korean Narrative of Picture Narration Task

#1: [1] ah [.2.4.6.8.0.2] ah [.2.4.6.8.0] [2] {[3] a- a old man [.2.4] hm [.2.4.6.]
uh sitting he’s sitting [4] under the tree and [.2.4.6] ah five monkeys are
[.2.4.6.8.0] ah} {[5] [.2.4.6.8.0.2] below the} [.2] {[6](other)} [.2.4.6.8.0.]
{[7] above the} [.2.4.6.] {[8] on the tree} [.2.4.6.8.0.2.] [9] so: [.2.4.6.8.] the
old man [.2.4.] ah ah he’s watching {[10] the monkeys} [.2.4] and [.2.4.] {[11]
besides him} [.2.4.6.] {[12] a lot of hats} [.2.4.] {[13] ah [.2.] are located}

#2: and [.2.4] ah [14] [.2.4.6] a old man [.2.4.] uh: nodding {[15][.2.4.6.8] he's nodding} [.2.4] uh [.2.4] the monkeys [.2.4.] {[16] catch the hats} [.2.4] {[17] be- beside the} [.2.4.6] old man [.2.4.] and [.2.4.6.8] {[18] pl- play with it}

Gestures

- 1: Sitting up straight, touching the below of his left eye with his right hand, and seizing the pictures with his left hand
- 2: Turning his head momentarily to the left
- 3: Seizing the pictures with his right hand and touching the lobe of his left ear with his left hand
- 4: Turning his head momentarily to the right
- 5: Taking off his left hand from his ear and moving forward
- 6: Moving left hand a little
- 7: Moving left hand forward
- 8: Moving left hand
- 9: Seizing the pictures with both hands
- 10: Moving his left hand forward
- 11: Moving his left hand forward
- 12: Moving his left hand forward
- 13: Moving his left hand forward
- 14: Resting his chin with his right hand
- 15: Slightly nodding
- 16: Turning his head momentarily to the right
- 17: Opening and closing the palm of his right hand
- 18: Slightly nodding

#1: ah [.2.4.6] 웬 늙은 할아버지가 [.2] 그: 나무 밑에 앉아 계셨고 [.2.4.6.] ah 다섯 마리의 원숭이가 인제 나무 위에서 놀고 있었습시다 [1] [.2.4.6.8] ah 근데 그: 늙은 할아버지에 [.2.4] 주변에는 [.2.4.6] 여러 개의 모자들이 [.2.] 그 바구니에 담겨 있었습시다

#2: uh: 할아버지가 [.2.4.] 나무 밑에서 졸고- [2] uh: 나무에 기대서 졸고 있는 동안 [.2.4.6.8] 원숭이들은 내려와서: 할아버지 옆에 모자들을: [.2] 가지고 올라가:고 [.2.4.] 또 쓰고 [.2.] 그렇게 놀고 있었습시다

[Translation:

#1: ah [.2.4.6] an old man [.2] was sitting under the tree CONNECTIVE [.2.4.6.] ah five monkeys were playing on the tree [1] [.2.4.6.8] ah but the: old man [.2.4] beside [.2.4.6] several hats [.2.] were in the basket
 #2: uh: old man [.2.4.] nodding under the tree- [2] uh: while being asleep leaning against the tree [.2.4.6.8] the monkeys came down: hats beside the old man [.2]

took and went up CONNECTIVE [.2.4.] and wore CONNECTIVE [.2.] were playing like that]

Gestures

- 1: Holding up the pictures
- 2: Nodding

Ki-Myeong's English and Korean Narrative of Narrative Recall Task

uh: [.2] a man was [.2.] taking off [.2.4.6.8.0.2] some pears [.2.4.6.8.0.2.] on the tree [.2.4.6.8.0.2.4.6.8.0.2.4.6] [1] and after taking off [.2] his pears [.2.4.6.] he collected his pears [.2.4.6.8.0.] {[2] into} his baskets [.2.4.6.8.0.2.4.6.8.] while he was taking [.2.4] his pears [.2.4.6.] on the- [.2.4] on the tree [.2.4.6.8.0] a man [.2.4.] was passed by leading his lamb [.2.4.6.8.0.2.4.6] and [.2.4] a boy [.2.4.6.] came [.2.] to under the tree [.2.4.6] {[3] and he found that} [.2.4] there was no man [.2.4.6.8.0.2.4.6.8] [4] watch him [.2.] so he took off [.2.4] one {[5] of-} one of his basket pear basket [.2.4.6.8.0.2.4] and [.2] took it off ...

Gestures:

- 1: Turning his head momentarily to the left
- 2: Beating with slight movement of his right hand
- 3: Touching his upper lip with his right hand
- 4: Swallowing one time
- 5: Looking upward

uh 한 남자가 [.2] 배를 [.2.4.6.8.0.] uh 나무로부터 따고 있었는데 [.2.4.6.8.0] 그가 uh 따- 따고 {[1] 있었고} [.2.4.6.] hm [2][.2.4.6.8.] 그가 배를 따서는 [.2.] 나무 밑에 있는 광주리 두 개 광주리에다가 배를 담았습니다 [.2.4.6] 그가 나무 위에서 배를 따고 있는 동안에 한 남자가 [.2.] 양::을:: 물고 [.2.4] 밑을 지나갔고 [.2.4.6.8.] 또 한 소년이 자전거를 타고 밑으로 왔는데 [.2.4.6.8.0.] uh 아무도 없는 것을 발견한 그 소년은 [.2.4.6.8] 하나의 광주리를 [.2.4.6.8] uh 자전거에다 싣고 [.2.4.6.8.0] hm 도망을 갔습니다

[Translation: uh a man [.2] pear [.2.4.6.8.0.] uh was picking from a tree [.2.4.6.8.0] he uh pick- pick {[1] PAST SUFFIX & CONNECTIVE } [.2.4.6.] hm [2][.2.4.6.8.] he picked pear [.2.] put the pear into two baskets under the tree

[.2.4.6] while he was picking pears on the tree a man [.2.] with a sheep: [.2.4]
 passed under it [.2.4.6.8.] and a boy got to the tree with riding a bicycle
 [.2.4.6.8.0.] uh finding there was nobody the boy [.2.4.6.8] one basket
 [.2.4.6.8] uh put on his bicycle [.2.4.6.8.0] hm ran away]

Gestures

1: Looking upward and raising little his hands holding together

2: Swallowing

In order to produce their narratives, Ho-Lyn and Ki-Myeong, as well as the other participants, needed two kinds of knowledge, content and linguistic knowledge (Hudson & Shapiro, 1991).²⁸ The content knowledge in the Picture Narration Task was cued directly by the pictures. The Narrative Recall Task, retained part in their memory from what they had seen in the movie clip, might be interpreted as content knowledge. In addition, as the goal of the tasks was to tell what they had seen, participants were simply required to provide script narratives, which are easier than personal narratives or stories. Therefore, they were able to focus on using their macro- and micro-linguistic knowledge and the realization of their knowledge.

At first, in light of the time spent on the tasks, Ho-Lyn and Ki-Myeong took more time in performing the English tasks. Ho-Lyn, including time spent for turning the second picture over, spent 49 seconds in the English version of the Picture Narration Task. He spent 32 seconds in the Korean task. Ki-Myeong

²⁸ Hudson and Shapiro (1991) suggested four kinds of knowledge for narrative production: content, structural, microlinguistic, and contextual knowledge. Structural knowledge refers to macrolinguistic knowledge that can be combined with microlinguistic knowledge. Contextual knowledge is the consideration of the function of the narrative in certain context that is not less obvious in this research situation because the participants were asked to tell a story as an artificial task.

showed the same tendency. He spent 49 seconds in the English version of the Narrative Recall Task and 36 seconds in the Korean version of the task. Interestingly, although they spent more time in the English version of each task, the total number of syllables in the English version of each task was much lower than in the Korean version of it.²⁹ Ho-Lyn produced 78 syllables in the English task and 138 syllables in the Korean task and Ki-Myeong produced 90 syllables in the English task and 139 syllables in Korean task. Their speech rates are as follows:

Ho-Lyn (Picture, English version): 1.6 syllables per second
Ho-Lyn (Picture, Korean version): 4.3 syllable per second
Ki-Myeong (Movie, English version): 1.8 syllables per second
Ki-Myeong (Movie, Korean version): 3.8 syllable per second

Considering the similar amount of information in both versions of the tasks, the difference in time spent and speech rate shows that they spent more time in planning for linguistic expressions in the English tasks. This interpretation might be criticized by the fact that they did the English tasks first and the possibility that they became more familiar with the task format when they did the tasks in Korean. However, the content of the tasks was easy for them to discuss and they were told how to perform the tasks in advance.

With regard to pauses, both showed lengthy pauses more often in the English task than in the Korean task. Ho-Lyn took pauses that lasted more than .4 second 21 times in the English task, but he took pauses only seven times in the

²⁹ Fillers were excluded in this counting.

Korean task. Ki-Myeong took pauses 14 times in the English task and 10 times in the Korean task. The average of pauses is as follows:

Ho-Lyn (Picture, English version): 21 pauses (average: .77 second)
Ho-Lyn (Picture, Korean version): 7 pauses (average: .64 second)
Ki-Myeong (Movie, English version): 14 pauses (average: 1.71 second)
Ki-Myeong (Movie, Korean version): 10 pauses (average: .89 second)

Ho-Lyn took pauses in the English task three times more than in the Korean task, and Ki-Myeong took longer pauses in the English task. The number of syllables between pauses also shows their linguistic difficulties and their need for planning time.

Ho-Lyn (Picture, English version): 3.7 syllables between pauses
Ho-Lyn (Picture, Korean version): 19.7 syllables between pauses
Ki-Myeong (Movie, English version): 6.4 syllables between pauses
Ki-Myeong (Movie, Korean version): 13.7 syllables between pauses

In the Korean task, Ho-Lyn produced many more syllables between pauses and Ki-Myeong produced twice as many syllables.

Ho-Lyn put more fillers in the English tasks than in Korean tasks, 9 fillers vs. 5 fillers, but Ki-Myeong did the opposite, 1 filler in the English task vs. 7 fillers in the Korean task. Thus, it may seem that fillers are not related to self-regulatory behaviors. However, when the positions of fillers are considered, an interesting point appears. Whereas fillers in the English tasks often appear in the middle pauses, fillers in the Korean tasks mostly appear just in front of words without pauses in both participants' narratives. Therefore, the functions of fillers in both versions of the tasks seem to be different, although both are self-

regulatory. In the English version of the tasks, fillers seem to be used to extend planning time without making pauses so long as to make the speaker nervous about silent pauses. On the contrary, fillers in the Korean version of the tasks seem to be used to clear their throat for the next utterances. Ki-Myeong showed such an inclination regularly.

Repetitions of words or phrases are an effort to confirm what is said and/or to save time for the next utterances without paying attention to repeated expressions. Neither participant repeated words or phrases in the tasks except the combination of an abrupt cutoff to the front parts of words or phrases and the completion of the words or phrases, for example, *a- a old man*, *be- beside the*, and *pl- play* in Ho-Lyn's narrative and *on the- on the tree*, *one of- one of his basket* in Ki-Myeong's narrative. Ki-Myeong performed similarly once in his Korean task. These examples are not true examples of repetitions because it is hard to determine if they used these speech behaviors to confirm what they had said. In addition, as they stopped and then produced complete words and phrases quickly, they could not have gained much time for planning. Instead, these repetitions seemed to be used for clear pronunciation.

Corrections and rephrasing are the result of metacognitive monitoring and corrected or rephrased words and phrases are the result of the self-regulatory process. Narrators make corrections and rephrase to achieve a goal, that is, to provide a narrative that is more informative and understandable. Compared to the grammatical errors made in their narratives, relatively few were corrected. Ho-Lyn corrected an expression that described the position of the monkeys: At first

he said *below the*, produced an unclear expression, and then said *above the*. This correction seems to be caused by the fact that some monkeys hung down from branches of the tree. In order to make sure of his correction he added *on* to *the tree* in the next phrase. Ho-Lyn corrected his expressions by adding the linking verb, *be*, between subjects and content verb with present progressive: *a- a old man hm uh sitting he's sitting*, and *a old man uh nodding he's nodding*. These show that he recognized a missing component of the grammatical structure and added an easy word for repair. In other narratives, the participants corrected their mistakes in singular-plural agreement, subject-verb agreement, articles, and some formulaic expressions.

Rephrasing was rather frequent. Ho-Lyn rephrased twice in the English task and once in the Korean task. Ki-Myeong also rephrased two times in the English task. The following two examples demonstrate Ho-Lyn's rephrasing and corrections at the same place.

a- a old man hm uh sitting he's sitting
a old man uh nodding he's nodding

Both examples are the same case where he added the linking verb *be* and changed a definite noun phrase into the pronoun *he*. These examples differ from other frequent cases where the participants changed pronouns into definite noun phrases in order to make the referents of the pronouns clear. The peculiarity of Ho-Lyn's examples can be explained by the difficulty that he had in correcting the structure. In his Korean task, he rephrased one time to describe that the old man leaned against the tree. Ki-Myeong specified the kind of basket by adding

pear to basket, but he did not rephrase the whole phrase: *one of his basket pear basket*. However, he rephrased a sentence by changing a long object phrase into *it*: *he took off one of- one of his basket pear basket and took it off*. This rephrasing is not likely made to improve his narrative.

Based on the categories suggested in Frawley and Lantolf (1985) and McCafferty (1992, 1994a, 1994b), several language-mediated behaviors are found in the participants' narratives. Those language-mediated expressions allow the speaker to depend on some parts of the tasks to reduce the difficulty of the tasks. Ho-Lyn's narrative exhibited a frame-based discourse pattern. Talking about each picture, he started with indefinite noun phrases, which gave an impression that his narrative started anew with each picture. However, with *and* at the beginning of the second picture, he tried to link the two pictures as one story. Other categories of language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors were not found in his narratives.

Ho-Lyn and Ki-Myeong made more body movements and facial expressions in the English task than in the Korean task. Although some of them can be categorized based on McNeill (1992), others cannot. For example, some cases of sitting up straight, turning their heads momentarily, touching some parts of their faces with their hands, swallowing, looking upward, and twisting up their faces are difficult to be categorized, but it is rather clear that those body movements and facial expressions can be interpreted as expressing that they felt challenged by the difficulty of the tasks. This interpretation is supported by the fact that both participants did not show such behaviors when they performed the

tasks in Korean. It seems that these behaviors are like pauses and fillers in verbal behaviors in their function for planning what is to be said.

Ho-Lyn used his hands in a downward beat in rhythm with his verbal expressions. Ho moved his left hand forward frequently, giving the impression that he was using his gesture to emphasize the verbal expressions. Ho-Lyn nodded when he said *he's nodding*, an example of iconics. He showed the same gesture in the exact same place in the Korean task. Therefore, the gesture seems to have been used to confirm what he said. Ki-Myeong also used his hand to emphasize the word *into*. The *into* phrase in the sentence was new information compared to the previous sentence.

SELF-REGULATORY BEHAVIORS IN L2 NARRATIVES

In this section, I move to the categories of self-regulatory behaviors. Findings indicated that the participants used several self-regulatory behaviors with individual differences while performing the narrative tasks. The following section is divided into four parts. The first part reports on temporal behaviors, pauses and fillers, that are closely related to metacognitive planning and monitoring process. The second part is the resultant behaviors of metacognitive processes, repetition, correction, and rephrasing. The third part reports on language-mediated behaviors whose purpose is to get other-regulation through question forms or object-regulation by objectifying some parts of the task. The final part is a discussion of gestures that are self-regulatory.

Temporal Behaviors (Pauses and Fillers)

Pauses are the most apparent phenomenon in the participants' narratives. Fillers also appear frequently in their performances. Some fillers occurred with pauses, and some did not. As pauses and fillers take up time without overt verbal behaviors, they are related to planning and monitoring in metacognitive processes. The frequency of pauses and fillers is displayed for each participant in Table 4.4. Notes that in the table, two explanations for how pauses and fillers were counted are necessary. Pauses in turning to a next picture in the Picture Narration Task were not counted because the primary purpose of these pauses is obvious, to turn to a new picture. However, all the participants mostly used the latter part of the pauses to look at a picture and prepare for their next narratives. Fillers did not show any meaning but appeared in the narratives. To name a few, they are ah, uh, ahm, hm, um, uhm, etc. Sometimes there was a difficulty in distinguishing fillers from the indefinite article, a, and the schwa sound, /ə/, which often appeared at the end of words. Most of ambiguous cases were resolved with the participants' confirmation. However, even the participants could not identify some of the cases.

Table 4.4: Pauses and Fillers in the Narrative Performances

Tasks Participants		Picture Narration Task			Narrative Recall Task		
		Length	Pauses	Fillers	Length	Pauses	Fillers
Jin-Su	Eng	217	76	33	241	75	70
	Kor	110	16	14	146	16	37
Tae-In	Eng	141	48	9	202	62	16
	Kor	90	9	9	83	6	9

Hong-Chang	Eng	124	39	20	276	98	70
	Kor	94	7	13	185	21	25
Ho-Lyn	Eng	171	65	38	299	163	118
	Kor	91	8	14	254	20	34
Ji-Seong	Eng	256	87	9	266	148	28
	Kor	107	24	1	205	48	3
June-Hee	Eng	104	34	5	159	62	1
	Kor	47	2	1	106	8	0
Ki-Myeong	Eng	83	32	8	144	49	12
	Kor	119	9	3	90	17	9
Su-Beom 1	Eng	170	46	27	258	117	72
	Kor	111	17	11	176	25	8
Su-Beom 2	Eng	150	39	27			

Figure 4.1 is a chart for the Picture Narration Task from Table 4.4 and Figure 4.2 is a chart for the Narrative Recall Task from the same table. In each figure, the lengths of the participants' narratives, numbers of pauses, and numbers of fillers are displayed in blue lines for the English task and in red lines for the Korean task.

Figure 4.1: Lengths, Pauses, and Fillers in the Picture Narration Task

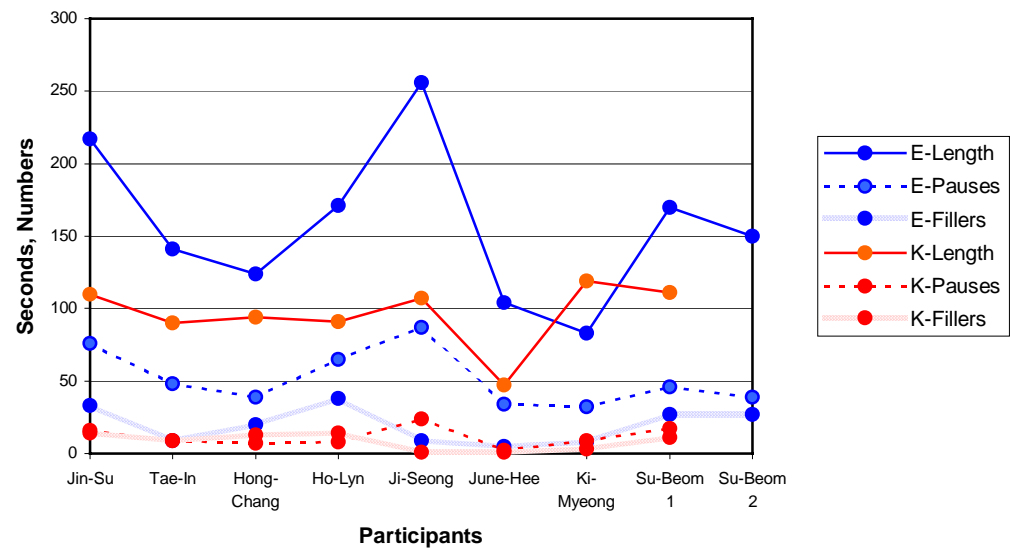
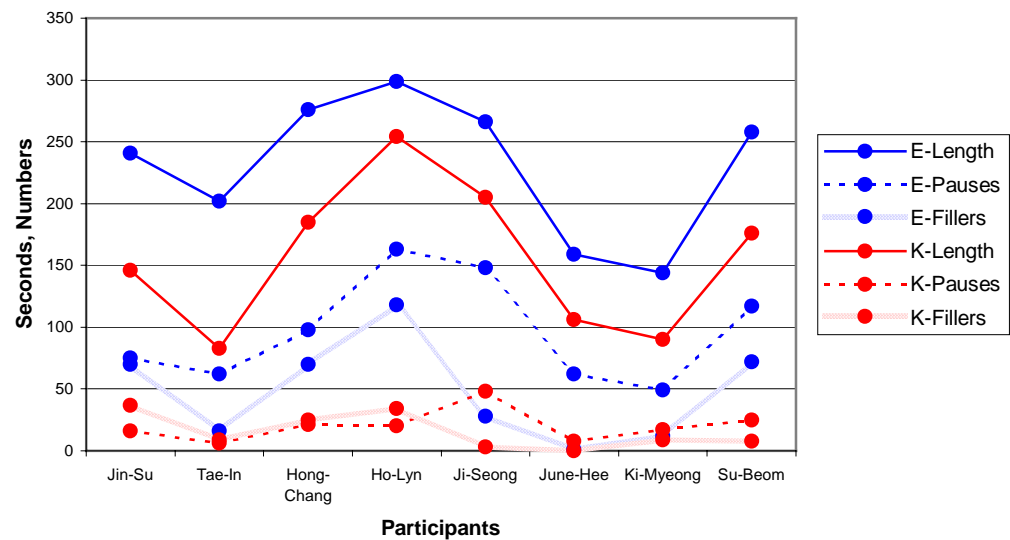


Figure 4.2: Lengths, Pauses, and Fillers in the Narrative Recall Task



All the participants took more time in performing the tasks in English than in Korean except one case, Ki-Myeong, who took more time in doing the Picture Narration Task in Korean. However, he had a special reason for it. While performing the task in Korean, he suddenly understood the fact that the monkeys in the pictures had just imitated what the hat seller did, which he had not realized when he did the task in English. Therefore, he spent time in describing his sudden comprehension. In addition, his performance in English was quite short.

As shown in the table, there are individual differences in using pauses and fillers. Jin-Su and Ho-Lyn took more pauses and used more fillers, but June-Hee and Ki-Myeong took fewer pauses and used fillers less. Interestingly, Ji-Seong took quite a few pauses, but he used fillers less. It seems that all the participants took pauses less and used fillers less in the Korean tasks.

In the following table, the length of each narrative is divided by the number of pauses and fillers in the narrative task.

Table 4.5: The Average Time Interval of Pauses and Fillers in the Narrative Performances

Tasks Participants		Picture Narration Task		Narrative Recall Task	
		Pauses	Fillers	Pauses	Fillers
Jin-Su	Eng	2.9	6.6	3.2	3.4
	Kor	6.9	7.9	9.1	4.0
Tae-In	Eng	2.9	15.7	3.3	12.6
	Kor	10.0	10.0	13.8	9.2
Hong-Chang	Eng	3.2	6.2	1.3	3.9
	Kor	13.4	7.2	8.8	7.4
Ho-Lyn	Eng	2.6	4.5	1.8	2.5

	Kor	11.4	6.5	12.7	7.5
Ji-Seong	Eng	2.9	28.4	1.8	9.5
	Kor	4.5	107.0	4.3	68.3
June-Hee	Eng	3.1	20.8	2.6	159.0
	Kor	23.5	47.0	13.3	N/A
Ki-Myeong	Eng	2.6	10.4	2.9	12.0
	Kor	13.2	39.7	5.3	10.0
Su-Beom 1	Eng	3.7	6.3	2.2	3.6
	Kor	6.5	10.1	7.0	22.0
Su-Beom 2	Eng	3.9	5.6		

Obviously all the participants took more pauses in performing the tasks in English than in Korean, thus indicating that they definitely needed more time to perform the tasks. They may have used the time for planning or thinking out appropriate words or expressions. Pauses seemed to play a self-regulatory function because they were used to succeed in performing the tasks.

When the number of fillers is considered, interesting facts rise. First are individual differences in using them. Although Jin-Su was more fluent than the other participants, he used more fillers. I asked why he often used them in the interview. He said that when he was young, he noticed that his father often used fillers while talking with other people, and his father's style appeared worthy. Imitating his father, Jin-Su got into a habit of using fillers.

The difference between the number of fillers in the English task and in the Korean task is rather small. For example, Jin-Su and Hong-Chang, who often used fillers, showed similar rates in the English and Korean tasks. However, all the participants often had extended fillers in the English tasks, and drawn-out

fillers appeared only a few times in the Korean tasks. Comparison of distribution of fillers in the English tasks and in the Korean tasks reveals an interesting pattern. Whereas fillers were widespread across the English task, many fillers in the Korean tasks appeared primarily when the narrator began to speak in both tasks. Therefore, in the Korean tasks, one of the purposes of using fillers seemed to be clearing the throat. However, in the English tasks, fillers that appeared in the middle of narratives served to hold the floor to keep on task. Some gestures showed the same function, when the speaker took pauses without verbal expressions for more than 3 seconds.

The participants showed differences in the maximum pause length in the English tasks. Table 4.6 provides the mean of the first, second, and third longest pauses in English tasks.

Table 4.6: Mean Length of the Top Three Pauses in English Tasks

Tasks Names	Picture Narration Task	Narrative Recall Task
Jin-Su	3.03	3.03
Tae-In	2.30	2.60
Hong-Chang	2.17	2.00
Ho-Lyn	3.10	2.57
Ji-Seong	5.37	4.87
June-Hee	3.70	1.87
Ki-Myeong	1.83	2.50
Su-Beom 1	6.60	4.13
Su-Beom 2	2.53	

Tae-In, Hong-Chang, and Ki-Myeong took rather short pauses, but Ji-Seong and Su-Beom took longer pauses. This difference demonstrates the participants' tolerance for silence while performing a verbal task. Therefore, when a participant took a pause that was longer than his tolerance span, he tended to use a filler in the middle of the pause. There is one caution in dealing with the participants' maximum length of pause. Su-Beom exhibited the fact well. His maximum lengths of pauses between his first Picture Narration Task and his second task were very different. When I looked for the reason, I found the existence of gesture in his first try. In the longest pauses in the first try, he used gestures to continue his role as a narrator.

Content-Related Behaviors

Content-related behaviors are the results of metacognitive monitoring and related to the limitation of speakers' L2 knowledge. They are also related to attention and attention allocation.

Correcting grammatical mistakes and rephrasing seem to reflect the participants' efforts to achieve a goal, to make their narratives more comprehensible to themselves and to their imaginary audience. These corrections and rephrasing reveal that the participants keep monitoring their performance and take action when their utterances are not satisfactory. However, as they cannot keep monitoring their performance continuously, their corrections and rephrasing

are selective. Compared to mistakes they made in the tasks, the number of their corrections was rather small.

Corrections

Among corrections, changes for singular-plural agreement are frequent. The corrections are divided into two kinds: One type is required corrections due to structural requirement. There are two examples: ... *he has uh suspicion to the/ **three kid three kids** because ...* (Hong-Chang, movie) and ... *and then the all **pear/ pears** is spread on the street//...* (Su-Beom, movie). The other kind is corrections because of the content of the story. There are four cases: ***the monkey monkeys** uh return// ah their hat/* (Ho-Lyn, #6), *they found **the the hats/ hat** on on the ground* (Ho-Lyn, movie), *they're playing **with it with them**///* (Ji-Seong, #3), and *they also/ **throw it throw them**// away/ on the ground* (Ji-Seong, #6). The interesting point in Ho-Lyn's corrections is that he did not repeat definite articles when he made corrections. He showed the same tendency in other corrections, too. On the contrary, Ji-Seong repeated the entire phrase.

Corrections for indefinite articles were few. Only Jin-Su made one in *this is **an- a- a** little bit sad situation* (#4). This result and the fact that the corrections for definitive articles were also few show that the participants did not pay attention to articles enough to correct their mistakes.

Corrections for subject-verb agreement were made a few times. Jin-Su, Hong-Chang, and Ho-Lyn each made one. Jin-Su and Hong-Chang corrected

themselves at the beginning of the Narrative Recall Task: *a man **who were- who was picking*** (Jin-Su) and *it **show it- it shows the that scenery*** (Hong-Chang) Ho-Lyn corrected the mistakes in the middle of the Narrative Recall Task: *when they **passing by/ pass by/*** (Ho-Lyn). As in cases of correcting articles, this type of correction did not appear to attract the participants' attention.

However, there are cases in which habitual usage of verbs was corrected several times. Hong-Chang's performance is typical.

and **they're- they look** enjoy// (#4)
 a girl **who has** uh// **who has** uh **rode** a bike// (movie)
they're/ they helped// him to/ (movie)
they are// ah **they leaved** the that place// (movie)

As *be* and *have* are used more times than other verbs, Hong-Chang seemed to be accustomed to using them and produced them unconsciously. Therefore, when he noticed his mistakes, he changed them with what he wanted to use. Jin-Su admitted that he has the same "problem," but his corrections were not found in his narratives because he added progressive forms of verbs after *be*. As a result, there are many verbs with progressive forms in Jin-Su's narratives. The following are some examples of it:

ah this old man seems to **be selling** or **gathering** some hats (#1)
 one/ monkey **is getting** up/ the tree once again (#2)
 the boy/ uh/// had/ uhm//// came back/ uhm/// uhm/// uhm to the place
 where he **was coming** from/ ... (movie)

Among other corrections, observing a specific grammatical rule, pluralizing of material nouns, warrant comment. Tae-In and Su-Beom made the correction.

steal whole basket whole a basket of pears/ (Tai In, movie)
two baskets/ two baskets of pears// ah two baskets of pear/ (Su-Beom, movie)
three piece of pears (three piece of pear) (Su-Beom, movie)

These corrections showed their adherence to what they had learned.

Rephrasing

Rephrasing seems to be used to provide supplementary utterances in order to change some aspects of what has been said. Two types of rephrasing are salient. First, most participants changed the tense of sentences often. In the Picture Narration Task, they tended to change past tense into present tense.

From past to present

Tae-In: #2: [present progressive] ... so he **didn't** he **doesn't** rec- he seems **doesn't** recognize/ ... [#3]

Ji-Seong: #3 [present progressive] ... the old man/// **wok- wake** up ...
[past]

Ji-Seong: #6 [present] ... the old man **got** a clue- **get** a clue/ ... [present]

Su-Beom: #1 [present] ... one man **was sitting** ah he **is sitting** ...
[present]

Su-Beom2: #2 [present] ... the monkeys/ **came down** ah **come down** to the trees ... [present]

Su-Beom2: #5 [present progressive] ... he **was-** he **is** thinking actually ...
[present]

From present to past

Su-Beom1: #2 [past] ... the monkeys are **come** to **came** to the- **came**
down to the trees ... [present]
 Su-Beom1: #5 [metacomment] ... ah man s- man **was sleeping** ...
 [present]

This result shows that they tried to keep to the present tense in performing the task. This is confirmed by the present tense of the sentences preceding and following the examples. However, when they performed the Narrative Recall Task, both cases, from past to present or from present to past, appeared, but sentences in the past tense are a little more frequent than sentences in the present tense.

From past to present

Tae-In: [present] ... the guy gathering the pear **did-** **does** not
 recognizing ... [past]
 June-Hee: [past] ... farmer// **didn't/ do not** notice her/ ... [present]
 Su-Beom: [present] ... he **couldn't/ he cannot** see he cannot (the) see// ...
 [present]
 Su-Beom: the bicycle is [present]// you know **fell down fall down** ...
 [present]

From present to past

Ho-Lyn: [present] ... the friends// ah **is** hm/ **was**/ ... [present]
 Ho-Lyn: [past] ... he **think** ah he **thought** the/ ... he **thinks/ he felt**// ...
 [past]
 Ji-Seong: [past] ... they **are** they/ **were** approaching ... [past]
 Ji-Seong: [past] ... **is stolen/ was stolen**/ ... [past]
 June-Hee: [past] ... **cross by crossed by** ... [present]

Compared to the Picture Narration Task, the participants used the past tense often. This difference might be caused by the difference in presentation of materials. When they performed the Picture Narration Task, they held the

materials in their hands. Therefore, it might have been easy to keep to the present tense in telling a story based on the pictures as they viewed them. By contrast, in the Narrative Recall Task, they had watched the movie, and then provided their narrations. Therefore, it is likely they assumed that their task was to tell a story that they had viewed as if it had happened in the past.

The second type of rephrasing is to add a detailed statement to previously expressed words or phrases. The participants specified subjects, objects of verbs, objects of prepositions, and verbs. The following are examples of specifying subjects with rephrasing:

Specifying subjects

Jin-Su: it/ ah/// the tr- ah the pears trees were

Tae-In: and so he the boy// the boy put the basket

Tae-In: it- it- that time he the boy recognize

Hong-Chang: one guy one uh uh little boy riding the bike

Ho-Lyn: #5 when a man when old man

Ho-Lyn: he don't/ the the passing man don't//

Ho-Lyn: a man a- a son and hm/// (xx) their friends/ uh uh/ separate

June-Hee: #6 it seems they are/ change/ they the chimpanzee changed his
mind

Su-Beom1: #2 when the man the guy

Su-Beom2: #2 he- the- the guy's hats/

Su-Beom: the one- uh relatively ah fat boy ah pick up the hat

In many cases when they used pronouns, they added definite phrases in order to prevent any misinterpretation of pronouns. When they used common nouns, they rephrased them with more specific nouns. For example, Ho-Lyn changed *man* to *son*, and Su-Beom changed *the one* to *fat boy*.

Specifying verb objects

Jin-Su: driving his uh bike- bicycle/

Tae-In: #5: when he/ take off the his hat

Tae-In: #6: so he got/ all the all his hats

Tae-In: he meet another uh he meet a girl

Hong-Chang: who riding bike- bicycle/

Hong-Chang: farmer recognize one of uh/ basket- (uh) one of uh his uh//
baskets//

Ho-Lyn: on on the ground so/ he called him/ he call the young boy/

Ji-Seong: he/ didn't (do)// he didn't uh do anything

Ki-Myeong: #5 following he- the old man's act

Ki-Myeong: he took off one of- one of his basket pear basket//

Su-Beom: riding the bik- bicycle

Specifying the objects of prepositions

Jin-Su: #4: for him- for the old man

Ho-Lyn: #3 playing with the hat/ his hat

Ho-Lyn: on the tree hm pear tree/

Ho-Lyn: from him/ from the young boy/

Ji-Seong: from the ap-/ his apron/

Ki-Myeong: gave his the boy's hat to him

Su-Beom: he fell down to the ahm// to the ahm to the land/ to the street/

Specifying objects is similar to subject specification. The participants often replaced pronouns with definite noun phrases. When they substituted, they sometimes added new phrases to incomplete phrases. For example, Tae-In replaced *all the* with *all his hats*. Ho-Lyn showed the same cases in *on the tree hm pear tree*. An interesting point needs to be mentioned. Jin-Su, Hong-Chang, and Su-Beom said *bike*, stopped their pronunciation suddenly, and then said *bicycle*, instead. It seemed that they preferred *bike*, a one-syllable word, at first, but in order to improve the comprehensibility of their narratives, they added *bicycle*, a 3-syllable word.

Specifying verbs

Hong-Chang: the basket which has uh/ uh which contained several/ pears//
uh uh basket of pears//

Ji-Seong: when he// was doing- uh// pick them off/ again

Su-Beom: he go he ahm he he's and then he's ah escaping away

Su-Beom: who di/ who to- took/ ah his his basket

Verb specifications were done with words that have concrete meaning.

Repetitions

All the participants showed many repetitions and the following are some examples:

Jin Su

Picture (#6): to the old- old man

Movie: while he was he was working

Movie: and but afterwards ah afterwards but in the end

Tae In

Picture (#1): on his on his head

Picture (#1): he seems a// he seems a guy ...

Picture (#2): playing with- with some hats

Picture (#3): all the monkeys are having/ having his hat

Movie: there is-/ there is a story

Movie: he he// he found the pear basket

Movie: and so he the boy// the boy put the basket

Hong Chang

Picture (#1): monkeys are/ are staying

Picture (#1): in the- the baskets

Ho Lyn

Picture (#3): while the/the the monkeys are

Picture (#3): surprised at the at-// ah seeing

Picture (#6); and the old man// now now laughed

Ji Seong

Picture (#1): on the/ the tree there's/

Picture (#1): the- the old man

Picture (#2): the monkeys are// monkeys are going down

Picture (#5): when he when he ah// take off

June Hee

Picture (#2): the old man is// is// be sleepy (is) sleep

Picture (#4): he// he he (re)quired

Picture (#5): have the same// same shape

Picture (#6): the old guy/ the old guy seem to be

Su Beom

Picture (#2): right now now the monkey- the monkey each monkey has its
own hat/ its own hat

Picture (#4): the next/ next page page as- as well

Picture (#4): to make to make man to make the monkeys return his his hat

Picture (#5): the monkeys have/ have each own hats on- on- on- on its
hat//

Picture (#6): the monkey anyway the monkey returned

In terms of temporal aspects, there are two kinds of repetitions. First, previous words or phrases were sometimes repeated immediately. In such cases, the utterances, mostly words, were terminated abruptly, but the same utterances appeared again with new words. At first glance, this type of repetition appears unrelated to monitoring because there was no pause between repetitions. Rather, the repetition seems to be an automatic confirmation of what was said. However, considering that confirmation is the result of monitoring, this repetition is an example of the fast monitoring and executing of mental processes. In addition, recurring repetition is also related to planning. Su-Beom's repeated *ons* demonstrated this point well in *the monkeys have/ have each own hats on- on- on-*

on its hat//. While repeating the word several times, he seemed to be searching for the next appropriate expression to use. The second type of behavior reflecting a temporal aspect is that there were occasionally obvious pauses between words or phrases and their repetitions. This type of repetition did not seem to be very different from the first type of repetition in which there is no pause. The distinction between the two types may be found in whether from the beginning the speaker has difficulty in planning and searching for his next utterances, or not. In the second type of repetitions, the participants might have been struggling for subsequent words while they produced words. Tae-In's example, *there is-/ there is a story*, showed the similarity between the two types of repetition. In this example, he suddenly stopped after *is*, and then there was a pause. When he stopped suddenly, he may have had an expression in mind, but he may have found that he was not ready or that the prepared expression was not appropriate. Therefore, he needed more time, which resulted in a pause, to think more broadly to continue his narrative. Finally, he repeated *there is* and added *a story* to the repeated phrase.

When the unit of repetition is considered, it is found that most often, a whole phrase or a part of a phrase was repeated. One-word or two-word phrases were repeated frequently and three-word phrases were repeated a few times. The fact that the participants repeated phrases of three words or less shows that it was difficult for them to be content with rather long structures while they narrated. In addition, the fact that they often repeated a part of a phrase rather than a whole phrase indicates that they focused less on the content of what they said and more

on securing time for their next utterances. Therefore, their repetition can be taken as serving a self-regulatory function.

Language-Mediated Behaviors

Language-mediated behaviors are the speculative result of the application of a Vygotskian approach in second language research in that these behaviors show the mediated function of language. As children come to know the regulatory function of language through interaction with adults, particularly their caregivers, they begin to use the language function for themselves. When they cannot regulate their own behaviors, they try to get regulation from others (other-regulation), or to get regulation from objects around them by mentioning the objects (object-regulation). However, the distinction between other-regulation and object-regulation is less appealing in L2 solo tasks because question forms, the only item in other-regulation, occurred very seldom in the participants' narratives and they were used to make themselves understand the task they were trying to perform. Considering the relationship between object-regulation and pursuing a goal, the participants came to know the tasks with the help of object-regulatory behaviors and they became familiar with the tasks, thus improving the likelihood of their achieving the goal to tell a story. However, in children's object-regulation, there is not the same kind of goal for performing a task.

In addition to the distinction between object-regulation and other-regulation, language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors in this study can be

divided into narrative expressions and metanarrative expressions based on their referential meaning or semantic meaning. This division means that although some narrative and metanarrative expressions can both be self-regulatory, they are different in the degree of relevance to the content of the story. Naming, counting, and referencing are narrative expressions whereas question forms, frame-based discursive expressions, perspective and affective markers, and other metacomments are metanarrative expressions.³⁰ Emotional-releasing expressions caused by difficulty in performing tasks or sudden understanding of some parts of the story can be classified as narrative expressions or metanarrative expressions by their referential meaning.³¹

Naming

As names for characters or objects in the narration task are generally a part of a narrative, it is hard to identify self-regulatory features in names and to label them as self-regulatory behaviors. However, if a name is less relevant to a

³⁰ McCafferty (1994b) stated tangentiality to the narrative as one of the requirements of self-regulatory private speech, but it is doubtful how such a criterion can apply to expressions for naming, counting, and referencing.

³¹ Following Frawley and Lantolf's (1985) discussion of affective markers, McCafferty (1992, 1994a, 1994b) classified sighs, laughter, and exclamations as indicating learners' incomplete grasp of some elements of L2 tasks as object-regulatory behaviors. However, if sighs, laughter, and exclamations are not related to some part of the task, it's hard to see those behaviors as object-regulatory. Instead, they seem to be merely self-regulatory efforts without external-regulation. The same logic can be applied to McCafferty's categorization of utterances related to "a learner's sense of having mastered a particular source of confusion" (McCafferty, 1992, p. 184) as self-regulation. If some utterances are related to some part of the task, they are object-regulatory, but if not, they are language-mediated self-regulatory efforts without external-regulation. In addition, locating self-regulation parallel to object- and other-regulations in McCafferty's classification might cause misunderstanding of the status of object- and other-regulations. Both are verbal expressions denoting speakers' dependence on external entities for their self-regulation.

narrative and/or some metacomment features can be found in the name, the naming behavior may perform a self-regulatory function. In this case, the narrator externalizes some aspects of the task with naming and often reveals his or her background knowledge related to naming. The following example from Jin-Su illustrates the self-regulatory function of naming.

Jin-Su (movie): his friends or/ some other/ uhm/ country boys had approached him to help him/ ...

In this sentence, Jin-Su is externalizing his thought, “people help their friends,” by labeling them as friends. The same case is found in *three of friends or three uh country boys/ um are heading their own ways/* in his narrative. This naming seems to be relevant to his narrative. In addition, as shown in the two examples, his quick addition of noun phrases after the *friend* phrases also seemed to mitigate any possible irrelevant feature of the *friend* phrases. However, the regulatory function of the *friend* phrase is still found. In this case, he named the three boys as *his friends* based on a general thought, “people help friends.” His naming was an attempt to highlight the point that three boys helped the boy. With the naming, he thought that he was able to narrate more effectively. That is, his naming was an attempt to regulate his thought.

In the participants’ narratives, self-regulatory naming was not found except in the Jin-Su examples. However, Jin-Su’s attempt to add another noun phrase after the *friend* phrases showed another type of self-regulatory behavior related to naming. With the attempt to add another phrase, Jin-Su happened to

admit that his subjective evaluation and his knowledge use in naming and the resultant name might be irrelevant. This admission allowed him to add noun phrases with more neutral meaning at once. This instant change of naming might exhibit his English fluency. This name-change behavior would seem to be the result of metacognitive monitoring. All participants showed the same kind of change in naming. Table 4.7 showed all the names that were assigned to characters in the tasks. Names are listed as they appeared in their narratives. Names of the pear picker in the Narrative Recall Task are separated into three parts: 1) when he was alone, 2) from the time when a man with a goat passed by to the time when a boy stole one pear basket, and 3) when three boys passed him by. This separation is made to see any differences in naming the old man according to the presence of other characters.

Table 4.7: Naming of Characters in the Tasks

	Task	Naming of Characters
Jin-Su	Picture	The hat seller: very old man, this old man, that old man, he, the old man, him Monkeys: monkeys, they, some monkeys, a couple of monkeys, the monkeys, one monkey, every monkey, all the monkeys
	Movie	The picker: a man, the guy, he; him; the country man The man with a goat: The boy: a little boy, the boy, he, him The girl: a girl Three boys: his friends, some other country boys, three of friends, three country boys, three boys
Tae-In	Picture	The hat seller: a old man, his, he, a guy Monkeys: a lot of monkeys, the monkeys, all the monkeys

	Movie	The picker: a guy, he; the guy; the guy, he The man with a goat: The boy: a boy, he, him, the boy The girl: a girl Three boys: three boys, they, three good boys, three of good boys
Hong-Chang	Picture	The hat seller: one person, the person, him, the old guy, he, his, the old man Monkeys: five monkeys, the monkeys, they
	Movie	The picker: one farmer, he; he, a farmer; the farmer, farmer, he The man with a goat: one person The boy: one guy, one little boy, he, that kid, the little boy, the little guy The girl: a girl Three boys: several little kids, they, one of the kids, the three kids, three kid, three kids
Ho-Lyn	Picture	The hat seller: a old man, he, the old man, him, a man, old man, her Monkeys: five monkeys, the monkeys, monkeys, they
	Movie	The picker: a man, he; he, the man on the tree; a man, he, him The man with a goat: a man, he, the passing man The boy: a man, a young man, his son, son, he, him, the young man, him, a man, a son, the young boy The girl: young man, she, the girl Three boys: three young mans, a friend of him, they, their friends, the three, the friends, he, the young three young mans, three young boys
Ji-Seong	Picture	The hat seller: an old man, the old man, he, the wise man Monkeys: several monkeys, they, the monkeys, monkeys, the monkey, monkey, them
	Movie	The picker: a man, he; he, the guy, the man on the tree; the guy who pick out the pears, he The man with a goat: a man who bring a goat, he The boy: a boy, he, the guy, the boy The girl: a girl, the girl Three boys: the three boys, they, one of the three boys

June-Hee	Picture	The hat seller: the old man, old guy, he, the old guy Monkeys: several chimpanzee, chimpanzee, chimpanzees, the chimpanzee, they
	Movie	The picker: one farmer, he; farmer, he; the farmer, he The man with a goat: the man who bringing cow The boy: little young girl who run bicycle, she The girl: Three boys: several guys, three boys, them, the three boys, three boys
Ki-Myeong	Picture	The hat seller: a old man, he, the old man Monkeys: monkeys, five monkeys, they, the monkeys, all monkeys
	Movie	The picker: a man, he; he; the man The man with a goat: a man The boy: a boy, he, him, the boy The girl: a girl, the girl Three boys: three boys, three boy, one of the three boys, their, they, the boys
Su-Beom	Picture 1	The hat seller: one man, the man, the guy, man, he Monkeys: five monkeys, the monkeys, they, monkeys, the monkey
	Picture 2	The hat seller: one man, he, man, the man, the guy Monkeys: the monkeys, the monkey, each monkey, they
	Movie	The picker: one guy, he; he, one guy, he, the man; the man, he The man with a goat: one guy, the guy The boy: the young child, young boy, he, the boy, him The girl: one girl, the girl Three boys: three boys, they, the one relatively fat boy, the fat boy, the other two boys, the three boy, them

The participants used diverse expressions to refer to the characters in the story. The names can be classified into three categories: Common nouns or indefinite phrases, definite phrases, and pronouns. This categorization is not special and different from any general usage. The interesting point here is that many of their expressions were ungrammatical and the speakers did not keep

using the same names. Instead, they changed names very often. First, ungrammatical names showed their failure in monitoring in naming. This failure does not seem to be related to their English ability because considering their English fluency, using grammatical expressions for naming should have been well within their abilities. They often made mistakes in the singular-plural agreement, such as *three kid* (Hong-Chang) and *three boy* (Ki-Myeong), and in the usage of articles, such as *very old man* (Jin-Su) and *a old man* (Tae-In). When they noticed their mistakes in naming, they sometimes provided correct forms. Second, they often used several names to indicate the same character as shown in Table 4.7. Many participants pointed out that the most difficult situation in naming characters was when the three boys appeared and helped the boy who had stolen the pear basket. As all characters were boys, it is was hard for them to use pronouns clearly. Therefore, as shown in Table 4.7, they used various phrases. This solution caused many problems. For example, their usage of an indefinite phrase that indicates the same character who was introduced with another indefinite phrase in previous sentences caused a great possibility of misunderstanding.³² Although it may not be obvious that the various names are language-mediated regulatory behaviors, they are self-regulatory in the sense that they indicated the participants' attempts at continuing a story under the limitations of their attention to what they are saying.

³² The English speaker who read all the participants' narratives mentioned this point.

Counting

In previous L2 private speech studies, counting objects in a story was considered a language-mediated self-regulatory behavior. The rationale provided was that counting is one way to make some aspect of a task clearer to a narrator and let the narrator perform the task with less difficulty. In the participants' narratives, only Tai-In counted the monkeys in the Picture Narration Task. The few counting examples might be caused by the content of the materials. Tae-In's narrative for the first picture in the Picture Narration Task is as follows:

Tae-In (#1): picture number one/ there is a tree// on the tree/ are a lot of monkeys **one two three four five** monkeys on the tree

During the interview, he said that he had counted the monkeys because he had experienced difficulty in making himself understood in numbering. Therefore, he produced counting in order for the researcher to track his narrative more easily. To discover any self-regulatory function of the counting, I asked him whether he had any other purpose in counting the monkeys. In response, he admitted that the counting also gave him time to plan his next utterances. Therefore, his counting had dual functions: an interactive function and a self-regulatory function to gain time for planning. This result may raise doubts about counting as a language-mediated self-regulatory behavior. This doubt can be resolved when one considers whether language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors are conscious or not. In a Vygotskian perspective, higher thought seems to be always under voluntary control (Frawley, 1997, p. 173). Then, all language-mediated behaviors must be

perceived as self-regulatory. In this sense, Tai-In's counting does not seem to be a language-mediated behavior. However, there is a possibility that some regulatory behaviors acquired in childhood are automatized enough not to be recognized consciously (Hacker, 1998, p. 7). Discussing the properties of L2 communication strategies, Bialystok argued that consciousness is not an essential condition for communication strategies (Bialystok, 1990, p. 146). Therefore, regardless of Tai-In's awareness of the language-mediation effect of his counting of the monkeys, his behavior can be characterized as language-mediated self-regulatory behavior. Then, what is the criterion for judging whether self-regulation is language-mediated? At this time, it is left to a researcher's own judgment about whether a behavior is used to make a given task known to a speaker, that is, whether some aspects of the task come to regulate the speaker in order to achieve a goal with the utterance.

Reference

In adult language, pronouns are normally used in a local level, anaphorically, to point to their referents. However, in children's language, a pronoun is often kept throughout an entire narrative to be used thematically. Frawley and Lantolf (1985) argued that adult L2 discourse tends to show the same phenomenon.

As there are an old man and a group of monkeys in the picture narration task, it is difficult to find the thematical usage of pronouns in these narratives. The

participants used *he* for the hat seller and *they* for monkeys. Nobody used the pronoun, *he* or *him*, to specify a monkey in the story. However, in the Narrative Recall Task, there are several characters who interacted with each other directly or indirectly several times. The following are four participants' descriptions of the situation while a man picked pears, a man with a goat passed by, and a little boy stole a basket of pears. Bolded words indicate the picker, italic words the man with a goat, and underlined words the little boy.

Jin-Su

while **he** [picker] was **he** was working ah of picking up ah some pears/ there was uh a little boy// uh who was/ uh riding a bicycle// approached uh **him** and hi- ah **his** tree// and// seems like without notice- without noticing **him**/ ah the boy had ah seemingly stolen one basket which is uh full of/ the pears// and// the boy/ uh/// had/ uhm//// came back/ uhm/// uhm/// uhm to the place where he was coming from/

Ho-Lyn

so I think **he** [picker] uh is hm **he** likes and/ hm loves **his**/ uh harvestings/ uh very much/ uh/ after returning ah climb returning/ uh/ climbing on the tree/ uh *a man* uh// was passing by the/ trees with *his* goat and but/ uh/ *he* don't/ *the the passing man* don't// uh// uh even think about the// pear/ because the *he* *he* knows that/ uh the/ **the man on the tree** hm pear tree/ uh likes **his** harvesting very much he knows/ he seems to know that/ uh after little while uh/ the/ uh a man a young man uh seems to/ the **his** son **the the man on the tree**/ son/ hm// uh putting the/ the/ the harvestings pears on his bicycle and/ uh return uh/ intend to return/ to his home//

Ki-Myeong

while **he** [picker] was taking **his** pears/ on the- on the tree// *a man*/ was passed by leading *his* lamb// and a boy/ came to under the tree/ and he found that there was no man// watch him so he took off one of- one of **his** basket pear basket// and took it off//

Su-Beom

when **he** [picker] is when **he** is coming ah going down/ the bring/ bring the one basket is full of/ ah pear// *the one one guy one guy* is ah going passing by/ ah// the ah/// the passing by the trees/ ah *the guy* the the the-/ *the guy* has one goat// and// and then// and then after uh *the guy with goat*/ has appeared// the young// young child/ (I think) young boy ahm wa-/ is riding the bik- bicycle and come to the trees and and then he see ah no// no one's there/// ah no one's there but there are ahm/ two baskets of pears/ and then he recognize that **one guy** is at- on the the trees and then **he he** couldn't/ **he** cannot see **he** cannot (the) see// the boy pick up/ the pears// and then he ah/ he// he bring he bring (x) out all the baskets/ not/ one piece of pears/ ahm/// and then he go he ahm he he's/ and then he's ah escaping away from the trees and **the man**/ ah still **the man** uhm cannot recognize that/

Jin-Su and Ho-Lyn used pronouns locally, so there is less possibility to misinterpret the referents of pronouns. However, Ki-Myeong used *he* and *his* to indicate different referents in a single sentence. The pronoun *his* whose referent was the pear picker, seemed to be used globally. Su-Beom clarified his use of *he* to indicate the picker in the middle of the excerpt by preceding *he* with *one guy*. However, the sentence was stated from the little boy's perspective.³³ Therefore, when *he* in *he couldn't* is interpreted, it is possible to interpret *he* as the little boy instead of the pear picker, thereby leading to misinterpretation.

However, as exhibited in the diverse expressions for naming characters, the participants struggled with referencing. Several participants confessed that they had not paid attention in sentences beyond the initial reference to their appropriate use of pronouns. Their admission supports the likelihood of irregular referencing.

³³ He used *one guy* instead of *the guy* in the sentence.

Question Forms (Other-Regulation)

These forms consist of two types: questions addressed to the researcher and self-directed questions (McCafferty, 1994a). Questions whose primary purpose is to ask other people for something, are categorized as other-regulation.

All participants avoided the use of question forms in their narrative tasks except for June-Hee, who asked in Korean during the English task, when would he be doing the Picture Narration Task in Korean. The absence of questions might be caused by the directions for performing the narrative tasks. Participants were asked to provide a story based on the given materials. However, another interpretation is possible. Self-regulatory behaviors may be ranked and correspondingly preferred or eschewed by a speaker. Self-regulatory behaviors that make them lose face, or self-esteem, are less likely to be employed. Direct or indirect questions are obvious evidence that the speaker is in trouble. Therefore, if the participants could find alternatives, it was natural that they would use them instead of question forms. Related to the degree of task difficulty, Jin-Su said that the time allowed was sufficient and the tasks were not officially required. Therefore, the following inference is possible: He wanted to provide good narratives, but he did not want to lose face by showing too frequently his need for self-regulation.

Frame-Based Discourse Structure

The participants showed their dependence on the frames in which the two tasks were given. The frame, as an object, regulated the participants and influenced their narratives (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985). This phenomenon was more evident in the Picture Narration Task where six pictures were given for the task. Table 4.8 showed the first utterances of the participants in the Picture Narration Task.

Table 4.8: First Utterances in the Picture Narration Task

	Frame-dependent Expressions
Jin-Su	#1: uh this seems like/ uh// depicting a countryside/ ... OK #2: now/ uh/ a couple of monkeys are getting down/ ... #3: ah// well// the next picture is/ every monkey ... #4: OK now it looks like the old man is ah begging/ ... #5: OK now the old man seems to be ahm giving up ... #6: OK now ah the monkeys are ah dropping down ...
Tae-In	#1: picture number one/ there is a tree// ... #2: picture number two// hm/ almost the same picture of number one but except// ... #3: picture number three// uh/ the guy/ ... #4: picture number four// the guy is stand up and/ ... #5: picture number five//// he hm when he/ ... #6: picture number six// so the guy/ ...
Hong-Chang	#1: in this picture shows uh/ ah one person ... #2: the next pictures// ah the monkeys ... #3: The when he// wake up/ ... #4: he is uh yelling at the monkeys// ... #5: and when the old man take off ... #6: ah when the old man throw his hat/ ...
Ho-Lyn	#1: ah// ah// a- a old man hm/ sitting ... #2: and ah/ a old man/ uh nodding/ ... #3: uh// while the/ the the monkeys are ... #4: so the old man asked the ...

	#5: ah// ah// uh/ yeah/ I think this picture is ah hm// ... #6: uh yeah/ after that/// hm///// the monkey ...
Ji-Seong	#1: an old man/ rest/ ... #2: and the monkeys are// ... #3: I thought (x) that the old man/ was ... #4: and he stand up and yell/// ... #5: when he when he ah// take off ... #6: so the old man/// think/// ...
June-Hee	#1: there is/ several chip ... #2: and/// it seems that chimpanzee is ... #3: hm// but/// I don't know the reason why but old guy ... #4: and/// he// he he required ... #5: hmhm///// but hm// when old guy take off ... #6: hm///// it seems they are/ ...
Ki-Myeong	#1: uh there is a tree/ ... #2: oh/ the old man/ who ... #3: then the old man woke up/ he found ... #4: and it seems that the old man/ ... #5: oh/ the old man/ took off ... #6: the old man/ took/ ...
Su-Beom	#1: in this picture ahm there one big trees ... #1: there's one big tree on this picture ahm// one man #2: when the man the guy ... #2: ahm/ when the man fall in sleep/ ... #3: uhm//////// OK ah this is ah// it's not correct order but ah go to the/ back again ahm// ah man s- man was sleeping/ ... #3: when the man wake up/ ... #4: ah next/ next page as- as well ah// when the man/ ... #4: and//////// to make to make man ... #5: and then monkeys/ the monkeys follow ... #5: ah the next picture ahm/// ahm the man is thinking ... #6: uh// do you remember the man/ shouti at the monkey ... #6: ahm///// but I'm not sure this logically correct but ah// there's

The participants started with *and/so/then*, fillers, metacomments with individual introductory expressions, or sentences with *wh*-clauses or pronouns.

Sentences with *wh*-clauses or pronouns in Hong-Chang's #3 and #4, Ji-Seong's #5, Ki-Myeong's #6, and Su-Beom's #2 and #3 link their narratives. I explained how to tell a story based on a sample set of pictures before they began the task. This explanation might have seeded an idea for narrating without breaks between the pictures. However, as Table 4.8 shows, they used fillers and several linguistic expressions that showed their dependence on the frame of the task.

It is not difficult to infer that *and*, *so*, or *then* were used to link a subsequent narrative with the previous narrative, but the fact that the participants used such connectors at the very beginning unavoidably reveals their narrating gap between pictures, as well. In addition, the result of using connectors was dependent on their following utterances. This linking effort was successful when pronouns or '*the* + noun' structures followed *and* or *so*, for example, *and he stand up* (#4, Ji-Seong) or *then the old man* (#3, Ki-Myeong). However, when there were '*a/an* + noun' structures or *seem* structures after *and*, the participants' effort to overcome the frame structure was futile. Among examples are *and ah/ a old man/* (#2, Ho-Lyn) and *and/// it seems that chimpanzee is ...* (#2, June-Hee).

Fillers show the same phenomenon. The basic function of fillers seems to be to extend the time to plan and prepare. Having gained more time with fillers, the participants sometimes overcame the frame structure, but not always. When they succeeded, they used *wh*-clauses or sentences with human subjects after fillers. Here are the cases:

Hong-Chang: #6: ah when the old man throw his hat/ ...
 Ho-Lyn: #3: uh// while the/ the the monkeys are ...

An interesting point emerges when Jin-Su's and Tae-In's introductory utterances are investigated. Jin-Su used *OK now* four times in the Picture Narration Task, avoiding its use only one time in the five opportunities to turn the pictures. During the interview, he said that he used *OK* to close his narrative for the previous picture.³⁴ This self-regulatory use of *OK* is also found in the middle of narrating a picture.

#2: ... and one/ monkey is getting up/ the tree once again with/ a hat uh with his hand/// *OK* seems like every monkey has/ uh/ at least one/ hats/// uh// in their arms

In this case, he used *OK* to end his description of the monkeys' movement with present progressive forms. After saying *OK*, he described the situation with the present tense. He confirmed that he wanted to make a conclusive statement at that time. Moreover, he said that he seemed to use *OK* as an exclamation mark, which means that it functioned for emotional release.

Now is the counterpart of *OK* in his usage. Therefore, its function is to open a new narrative for the next picture. He extended the pronunciation of *now* every time, thus effectively attracting the attention of the imaginary audience and providing himself time to focus on the next picture.

Tae-In counted every picture, for example, *picture number one*, when he started to narrate. He said that he used it for two purposes: One was to make it clear to me that he had started on a new picture for my convenience in analyzing

³⁴ He also used *OK* at the end of the Narrative Recall Task: ... *who had been stolen things like that OK*. It also had a function to signify the end of the task.

his narrative. The other was to buy more time before he started narrating the new picture. Therefore, his frame-based utterances had two functions: interactive and self-regulatory.

Another case of frame-based discourse structure can be seen in the usage of pronouns. Very often, at the beginning of each picture, “a/an + noun” or “the+noun” was used, and then its pronouns often appeared at the end of the frame.

Tae-In

#3: picture number three// uh/ **the guy**/ waked and// recognized the all the monkeys are having/ having **his** hat/ so **he** was surprised about that
#4: picture number four// **the guy** is

Ki-Myeong

#3: then **the old man** woke up/ **he** found that/ all monkeys// had **his** hats/ and all monkeys on the tree
#4: and it seems that **the old man**// ...

Su-Beom

#2: when the man the guy f- fell in- in- into sleep into sleeping/ **the monkeys**// are come to came to the- came down to the trees and then (**they**) pick up the// hats/ **they** have uh- it-/ its own hat
#3: and then **monkeys**/ **the monkeys** follow ...

Contrary to the previous cases, Hong-Chang and June-Hee continued using the pronoun, *he*, in the next pictures.

Hong-Chang

#2: The next pictures// ah **the monkeys** are playing with a// the hat beside the/ uh/ uh/ **monkeys**//// **they** are playing with the hats on the bucket// but **the the old guy**/ are taking nap so **he** didn't recognize/ the other ah other monkeys are playing with his hats
#3: the when **he**// wake up/ **he** ...

June Hee

#3: hm// but/// I don't know the reason why but *old guy* is wake up and *he* surprise/ by all of *his* hat is taken off by chimpanzees

#4: and//// *he*// *he he* required the chimpanzee to/ ...

Perspective markers

Perspective markers are one type of metacomments. The following is McCafferty's justification for including perspective markers as object-regulatory behaviors:

Perspective markers are also included as they indicate a subject is not relating events from "inside" the narrative, but rather from his or her own temporal perspective at the time of viewing the pictures; "*I can see* a boy walking down the street" is a typical example. (McCafferty, 1994a, p. 425 italics from original) (originally from Frawley & Lantolf (1985, p. 28))

Expressions from an "outsider" perspective often appeared in the participants' narratives. Among them, expressions showing a reserved stance in telling the story are prevalent. The following are representative examples. All the participants used at least one expression from a reserved stance.

Jin-Su

Picture (#1): this old man seems to be selling

Picture (#1): they're they're seem to be uh monkeys I'm not quite sure about// what they ar- what they are but to me it looks like/

Picture (#2): that old man// ah seemingly sleeping///

Picture (#2): OK seems like every monkey has/

Picture (#4): it looks like the old man is ah begging

Picture (#4): but the monkeys are not likely to get the- uh hats

Picture (#6): probably ah the old man ah should be// thinking

Movie: his friends or/ some other/ uhm country boys had ...

Tae-In

Picture (#1): probably he seems a// he seems a guy selling the hat

Hong-Chang

Picture (#4): they're- they look enjoy// they look enjoy playing

Movie: it looks he robbed a basket of uh/ pears//

Ho-Lyn

Movie: I think he uh is hm he likes and hm loves his/ uh harvestings/

Movie: he knows/ he seems to know that/

Movie: a man a young man uh seems to/ the his son ...

Ji-Seong

Picture (#1): I think that the- the old man// uh sell/ some/ hats

June-Hee

Picture (#2): it seems that chimpanzee is taking/ hat

Picture (#3): I don't know the reason why but old guy is wake up

Movie: it seem to harvest/ his fruit//

Movie: and she seemed/ farmer// didn't/ do not notice her/

Ki-Myeong

Picture (#1): it seems that he is selling hats

Su-Beom

Picture (#1): I'm not sure how many hats he has

Movie: the characters looks like cowboys

Movie: I think/ he collect already two baskets/

Movie: maybe the boy the the boy/ give hi-/ the fat boy

Among the participants, Jin-Su used several kinds of expressions more times than any other participants. He used such phrases as *seem*, *seemingly*, *look like*, *probably*, *I'm not quite sure about*. He also used rephrasing to take a reserved stance in *his friends or/ some other/ uhm country boys had ...*. The *seem* phrases and the *look* phrases were also popular among the other participants. The

phrase *I think* was used to indicate a reserved stance, but it was also used for emphasis on the next utterance. June-Hee's *three I think three/ three boys/* showed the use of emphasis. Using expressions showing a reserved stance can be seen as an effort to avoid any unexpected and regrettable results that would reveal when they had narrated with a convinced attitude.

The participants also used perspective markers that showed their feelings for the characters in the story and their evaluation of the story.

Jin-Su

Picture (#1): This is very a very peaceful/ uh/// picture

Picture (#4): this is an- a- a- little bit sad situation for him-

Picture (#6): old man seems to be very happy about/ the monkeys' decisions

Movie: the countryside/ which seem to be very peaceful ahm// ahm environment

Movie: but unfortunately uh when he was looking at her

Movie: he was quite uhm perplexed about the situation

Tae-In

Picture (#4): the monkeys looks very joyful with the hat

Movie: the guy saw the three of good boys

Ho-Lyn

Movie: it was very// ah// ah// ah hopeless/// that's the end of story

Su-Beom

Picture (#6): they- they looks happy all

Picture (#6): the man is laughing and look so happy

However, it is not appropriate to consider these perspective markers as purely self-regulatory. Showing appropriate feelings and evaluation in a narrative is a recommended strategy in telling a story. It is important to capture the self-

regulatory feature from these perspective markers with other context factors. For example, Ho-Lyn said *helpless* with laughter. Although the word was used to express the pear picker's emotion, he also expressed his own feeling while performing the task. This expression is regulatory because he could control his emotional state with it. The expression may not have been used for self-regulation originally, but when he happened to produce it for his narrative, he used it for its additional self-regulation. This case illustrates well the possibility for multiple functions in utterances.

Other Metacomments

Metacomments were associated with either some elements in tasks or task performances. Among them, most participants made opening comments and closing comments in their narratives. These metacomments were particularly evident in their recall task.

- Jin-Su (picture, #1): uh this seems like/ uh/ depicting a countryside/
Tae-In (movie): I wanna tell you about the video/ titled the pear story/
uh//uhm (x-) there is-/ there is a story of the pear/ uhm// at the very
first of the
video there is a guy/ ...
Tae-In (movie): ... that's the end of the story
Hong-Chang (movie): ah the video shows that there- there/ ah shows that
there there there was uh one farmer/
Ho-Lyn (picture, #5): ... I think that's the end
Ho-Lyn (picture, #6): ... that's the end of story
Ho-Lyn (movie): I will say I'll say the pear story of the (of the)/ (which is)
hm/ I already/ ah/ view/ ah// a man a man hm/ hm is harvesting his
pear/ ...
Ho-Lyn (movie): ... that's the end of story

Ji-Seong (movie): ... that's it
June-Hee (movie): ... I think it's the end
Su-Beom (picture, #6): ... that's the end of story

The expressions for opening and closing their narratives showed that the speakers had switched their role from that of a research participant to that of narrator and from narrator to research participant. When there were not visible statements for opening and closing their narratives, they used their gestures or they changed their postures. Therefore, the primary goal of the expressions seemed interactive. However, the self-regulatory feature in the expressions could be found in the stammering appearance of the expressions, particularly at the beginning of the narratives. The participants said that it was hard to begin their narrative in the tasks. Therefore, the hesitant speech seemed to be a manifestation of this difficulty.

Metacomments that had a communicative function also appeared in their narratives. The goal of these expressions was to provide a coherent discourse, a story, through interacting with interlocutors.³⁵ There are two types here. The first type were metacomments from a narrator's perspective, and the other, metacomments from a research participant's perspective. However, the second type did not appear clearly except in Su-Beom's comment, *I'm not sure this logically correct but ah*.³⁶ Rather, it seemed that the first type of expression

³⁵ This discussion is related to Schifffrin's (1987) analysis of *y'know*. She argued that *y'know* shows "interactive transitions in shared knowledge" (p. 309). She added that *I mean* has a complementary function with *y'know*.

³⁶ Su-Beom made this comment when he did the Picture Narration Task again. Although he performed the same task a second time, he had not understood that the monkeys had copied the hat seller's behaviors and that the hat seller intentionally utilized their reaction to get his hats back.

contained the second type. It would seem reasonable that expressions of the second type negatively affect a coherent discourse as compared to expressions of the first type.

The following are examples of metacomments from a narrator perspective.

Many cases are also perspective markers that show a reserved stance.

Jin-Su (picture #1): and there is a big tree as I said
Jin-Su (picture #1): I'm not quite sure about// what they ar-
Jin-Su (picture #1): to me it looks like
Jin-Su (movie): but in the end I mean there were no//
Hong-Chang (picture #1): the beside uh I mean the person under the tree
Ho-Lyn (picture #5): I think this picture is ah hm
Ho-Lyn (picture #5): that's I think that's the end
Ho-Lyn (movie): so I think he uh is hm he likes and/
Ji-Seong (picture #1): and I think that the- the old man
Ji-Seong (picture #3): I thought (x) that the old man/
June-Hee (picture #3): I don't know the reason why but old guy
June-Hee (movie): three I think three/ three boys/
Su-Beom (picture #1): I'm not sure how many hats he has but
Su-Beom (movie): and ah I think/ he collect
Su-Beom (movie): his eyesight ah I mean ah// he looks through

These examples show that although the participants were asked to perform the tasks alone and there was not a genuine audience, their narratives were communicative in the setting. Therefore, this supports how these self-regulatory expressions often have a communicative function as well.

L1 Expressions

June-Hee used L1 expressions in performing the Picture Narration Task in English. He said the Korean expression for *I don't know* at the end of narrating the fifth picture. This is the only case of L1 use among the 17 English narratives of the eight participants. His expression is one of self-regulatory behaviors. This usage of L1 expressions for self-regulation is also found in Anton and DiCamilla (1998). However, there is a big difference between the L1 use in the tasks in this study and in the task in Anton and DiCamilla (1998). In this study, the tasks were speaking tasks and the participants were asked to narrate in each language separately. Therefore, using Korean in the English tasks must be evaluated negatively. In contrast, the task in Anton and DiCamilla (1998) was a writing task and using L1 was encouraged.

Self-Regulatory Gestures

Overall the participants used more gestures in the English tasks than in the Korean tasks. In this study, the term, gesture, is used broadly so that it covers all types of body movements. It is reasonable to find a cause for the more frequent use of gestures in the difficulty of the English tasks. By and large, it seems that the less their actual telling actually expressed what they wanted to say, the more body gestures they used.³⁷ Su-Beom thought that gestures seemed to replace utterances that were hard to produce. The indications of being unable to sit

³⁷ If some logical leap is accepted here, the sum of the amount of speech produced and the amount of gestures in a given period may be constant.

comfortably were widespread in the participants' performances. The participants tended not to recognize their gestures. When they watched their performance and I pointed out their behaviors, they realized that they had produced many gestures.

In order to distinguish self-regulatory gestures from other gestures, the method used in Bavelas, Chovil, Lawrie, and Wade (1992) was applied in this study. Baveleas et al. (1992) investigated interactive gestures. In order to distinguish interactive gestures from all gestures, they used "a decision procedure based on elimination" (p. 473).

The scorer first considers whether it is a topic gesture, looking for some depiction of information related to the topic at hand. Failing to find that, the scorer then looks for an interactive meaning. (Baveleas et al., 1992, p. 473)³⁸

Therefore, according to their method, two types of gestures can be found in the participants' performances. At this point, however, the possibility of the existence of pure self-regulatory gestures or gestures that are more salient in their self-regulatory function needs to be mentioned. As temporal factors like pauses and fillers appear in verbal behaviors, the same kinds of behaviors seem to exist in the gestural area. It can be that gestures show uncomfortable feelings or mental concentration.³⁹ Therefore, another type of gesture should be added to the

³⁸ They described the necessary features of interactive gestures: "[I]t must have a paraphrase that is both independent of the topic and addressed to the interlocutor. In addition, the form must be interactive, which means that the finger(s), thumb, or open palm(s) are oriented directly toward the other person at some point, however briefly" (p. 473).

³⁹ These gestures are called random movements in studies of public speaking, and are discouraged for presenting successfully. Contrary to intended gestures, these movements do not start from a relaxed position, as the participants showed in this study (Osborn & Osborn, 1997).

distinction of Baveleas et al. (1992). That is, those gestures that are not related to the topic and do not show interactive meaning can be named self-regulatory gestures.⁴⁰ As pauses and fillers, these gestures can play a metacognitive function for planning and monitoring processes. When the comparison between gestures and verbal expressions continues, if an interactive gesture is self-regulatory more or less, it can be compared to other-regulatory verbal behaviors. Also, content-related gestures that are self-regulatory can be like naming, counting, and referencing in verbal behaviors in that the gestures objectify some aspects of a task. Among content-related gestures, there are counterparts to correction, repetition, and rephrasing. Therefore, one can propose that there are three types of self-regulatory gestures in the participants' performance.

Pure Self-Regulatory Gestures

All the participants showed gestures in the English tasks more often than in the Korean tasks, and most of the gestures were not interactive and did not have semantic meanings. For example, at the beginning of telling their stories, some of the participants sat straight to refresh their postures. June-Hee showed such gestures when he started to tell a story in the Picture Narration Task.

They also used gestures as markers of uncertainty, hesitation, and concentration on their own thoughts. These gestures indicated that they were at least some difficulty and they were trying to resolve the situation. To give a few

⁴⁰ It is also possible that there are other types of gestures according to research focus.

examples, Jin-Su moved his head from the right and to left side widely, Ho-Lyn touched his chin with his hands and frowned, and Ji-Seong bit his lip.

Jin-Su (movie): the country man (all of) appear to be thinking that ah ah// it was ahm those three boys who had stolen my pears// {[moving his head to the right and left widely] and but} afterwards ah

Ho-Lyn (picture #2): and/ ah/ {[touching his chin with his right hand] a old man/ uh/ nodding/}

Ho-Lyn (movie): hm {[lower voice] to the reverse direction/} and she ah {[frowning] hm//} {[slanting his head] want seems to (oh) /}

Ji-Seong (picture #2) monkeys are going down and// takes some// [biting his lip] hats in the basket/

During the tasks, they continuously changed their postures and moved their heads and hands. They showed more gestures in the Narrative Recall Task because they had no material to hold with their hands. In the Picture Narration Task, they often seized the pictures firmly. There were individual differences in these behaviors. Whereas Tai-In showed only a few such gestures, Hong-Chang exhibited many.

Averting gestures such as looking upward or turning their heads to the side without focusing on anything showed that the participants were concentrating on their thoughts. These gestures appeared very often in their performance, mostly, as they stated, when they tried to retrieve appropriate verbal expressions.

Concentrating on the content of the materials also appeared with gestures. For example, Tae-In, Hong-Chang, and Ho-Lyn looked at the pictures closely and Hong-Chang and Ho-Lyn produced a filler at the time. Sometimes, the

participants would suddenly move back from the pictures after looking at them closely. For example, while Hong-Chang seized the pictures with his two hands, he looked at the picture attentively and then sat straight up and produced the next utterances. This combination of gestures showed the transition of his focus from understanding the content to thinking over appropriate utterances.

Interactive Gestures

As the tasks were a solo activity, the participants did not show interactive gestures while narrating the stories. However, there were several interactive gestures that were related to task management. When they finished each task, they signaled the end of the task with utterances such as *that's it* or *that's the end of story*, their movement of gaze, or combination of both verbal utterances and change of gaze. In addition, Hong-Chang, Ki-Myeong, and June-Hee looked at me after they finished the first picture in the English task to check whether they were doing the task correctly and when they had to use Korean. These interactive gestures might be self-regulatory for successful task management, but as these gestures were not related to their narratives directly, they are beyond this study.

Some gestures among content-related gestures like deictics could be interpreted as interactive although there was not a real audience to whom the participants were telling a story. The participants sometimes indicated something on the pictures, or the pictures themselves with their fingers in the Picture Narration Task. The interactiveness of the gestures can be found in the fact that

they indicated something and the participants saw what they indicated. When the participants considered the camcorder as a listener, deictics showed interactiveness. For example, when Su-Beom told a story with the pictures, he stared at the camcorder while indicating the pictures with his fingers. Indicating gestures seemed to support language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors. When Su-Beom counted the monkeys in the Picture Narration Task, he pointed out the monkeys with his finger.

Content-Related Gestures

Those gestures that have semantic meaning can be placed in the category of content-related gesture. According to McNeill's (1992) classification, iconics, metaphorsics, and emblems are examples. As they were related to the content of the story, it makes sense to show the self-regulatory feature from their functions. First, iconics and metaphorsics deliver the same meaning that utterances with the gestures mean. Therefore, the gestures might be interpreted as the participants' efforts to make the meaning of their utterances clear. However, if their use of the gestures were not conscious, it might be difficult to see those gestures as self-regulatory. The following are examples of iconics and metaphorsics.

Hong-Chang
passing (moving his right hand horizontally)
basket (drawing a circle with two hands)
look up (moving eyes upward)
look around (turning his head)
put (putting something with two hands)

fell down (displaying something falls down with his right hand)
sprea- split out (moving two open hands horizontally)
looks (showing a face looking something)
pear (shaping a circle with two hands)

Ho-Lyn
he's nodding (nodding)
but, he don't (shaking his head)

June-Hee
bring pear (extending a hand)

Su-Beom
west (moving his left hand to the left)
he picking up (pretending to take something with his left hand)
put into the (pretending to put something with his left hand)
go to the back again (drawing a circle with his left hand)

These examples show that words and gestures are ontogenetically the same and they work in harmony and not at cross-purposes.

Beats seem to have the same function as iconics and metaphors in that they make the meaning of the utterances clear, but beats are different from them in that they do not have semantic meanings. Mostly the participants used their hands to indicate a beat, but they also sometimes used their heads or their whole bodies. Beats were often accompanied with emphasized words.

SELF-REGULATORY BEHAVIORS IN CONTEXT

According to a Vygotskian approach, individuals' self-regulatory behaviors develop under the influence of the social context in which they live because the interpsychological plane is primary and the intrapsychological plane

is secondary. This influence is the remote but fundamental influence of social context on self-regulatory behaviors. As this social context and biological individuality interact with each other, individuals develop their own style of self-regulation. Living in a culture in a similar social context, individuals share some parts or some features in the process of self-regulation, which enables them to understand the self-regulatory behaviors with each other. In this sense, self-regulatory behaviors can be considered socially-shared contextualization cues and their situated meaning is generally shared among people in the same culture (Gumperz, 1982, 1990, 1992).

When people come to use self-regulatory behaviors, they are also under the influence of the social context. Whereas the remote but fundamental influence of social context is rather related to their acquiring socially-shared self-regulatory behaviors, the immediate influence of the social context expresses the standards of common usage. In this sense, Goffman's (1974) frame analysis is relevant in analyzing the immediate influence of social context.⁴¹

The Situation When the Participants Performed the Narration Tasks

Six participants performed their narration tasks in a room of a library and two participants did so in the living room of my house. When they performed the tasks, there were always only two people present, one participant and me. Nobody

⁴¹ Although Schiffrin (1994, 1996) combined Gumperz's verbal communication and Goffman's frame analysis for interactional sociolinguistics, her combined approach is less appealing in this study because theoretical concepts rather than a theoretical framework are useful to analyze self-regulatory behaviors.

interfered during the tasks. I met six participants at the entrance of the library and ushered them to the room. Two participants knocked on the door of my house and I ushered them into my living room. All of them seemed to feel somewhat awkward because they had not done such a narration task in English before. Before introducing the tasks, I tried to create a comfortable atmosphere by talking about issues with which people are generally comfortable discussing. I also thanked them for their participation in my study. Nevertheless, an uncomfortable atmosphere continued throughout the tasks. Because of their uncomfortable feeling, I also felt uncomfortable. The fact that their performance was videotaped made them nervous.

When they performed the tasks, they did so alone. I did not initiate any interaction, but if they asked me questions about the tasks themselves, I answered their questions. Therefore, as narrators they did not have a real audience to interact with when they told stories, so they did not need to consider how what they said was understood by an audience. Su-Beom admitted his difficulty in continuing his narrations, because he could not get any feedback from an audience. He said that while talking, he often asked confirmation questions like ‘*Do you understand?*’. When I asked them to whom they told their stories, Tae-In and Hong-Chang said that they imagined children as their audience. However, June-Hee did not imagine any audience. Overall, the situation in which they told their stories was not a communicative one, but the tasks themselves were communicative essentially because telling a story assumes an audience who listens.

Although I was not a real audience for their stories, I was in the room when they produced their narratives, therefore, they had to consider my presence. My presence contributed two different features to the setting for the tasks. The Korean participants spoke in English in front of a Korean person, me, and they performed English tasks in front of a researcher whose major was English as a Second/Foreign language.

To them speaking in English in front of other Koreans was not comfortable because they felt that they had to reveal their poor English. I did not ask a direct question to confirm this, because I thought that the question might hurt their feelings. However, I sensed their self-consciousness throughout the sessions. Considering that most Koreans tend to evaluate their English proficiency negatively, it was natural that most of the participants showed the same tendency. I found that there were several factors that influenced their use of English in their life in the U.S. First, age was an important factor. Older people do not want to show what they do not do well to younger people in Korean culture. In the culture it is normally expected that as one is older, he or she is superior to younger people in all aspects. Consequently, younger people often feel free under this cultural pressure when they reveal their poor skills in front of older people. In this age factor, I was older than all of the participants, although some of them might not have known it. Therefore, the age factor likely did not have a negative effect in this study.

Second, the duration of their stay in the U.S. was another factor. Ho-Lyn raised this point clearly in his remarks. He said that he felt he had to show better

English proficiency to his Korean roommate who had come to the U.S. one semester later after he had. English is taught as a subject in formal settings in Korea and is not used for everyday communication; therefore, most Koreans who come to the U.S. to study consider that they are just beginning to learn spoken English seriously. Therefore, they are eager to acquire spoken English proficiency and to use it fluently. As a result, those who have arrived earlier are often expected by later arrivals to be fluent in English and they recognize this expectation in those who come later because they had the same expectation when they came to the U.S. As Tai-In confessed in acknowledging the slow development of his fluency, most Koreans come to realize that a couple of years is not enough to become fluent in speaking English. However, they still look for advanced ability in English of those who precede them. This expectation may play a role as an excuse for their own English proficiency. Regarding this period factor, I have stayed in the U.S. longer than any of the participants in this study. Therefore, this factor might have decreased their anxiety in performing the tasks in English.

Third, there was a factor related to their majors. As Ho-Lyn indicated, those who majored in science or engineering fields sometimes sought an excuse for their poor English proficiency in their majors. They often mentioned that language is not important and that what they learn and use can be expressed by signs and symbols. However, they know that this excuse is not enough to defend their claim. It was obvious that the fact that my major is directly related to a high

expectation of English proficiency made them comfortable in their performance in front of me.⁴²

The other setting, participant vs. researcher, seemed to influence their behaviors. All of them said that it was the first time for them to speak in English and get thorough feedback. Moreover, it was the first time they had talked in detail about their English with another Korean. Therefore, although they were reluctant to participate in the study as mentioned in Chapter 3, as time went on, they were willing to talk about their English. This change in their attitudes evolved during the interviews. With the transcripts of their narratives and technical terms for L2 speaking, they could objectify their English speaking and discuss it without emotional reluctance.

In conclusion, speaking English in front of a Korean and performing a task in front of a researcher in the field of English as a Second/Foreign Language might confuse them in identifying the situation. Goffman's (1974) term "ambiguity of primary framework" gives some insight in understanding the situation.⁴³ Goffman used the term to refer to a situation that is vague or uncertain. Individuals encounter the situation when there is a doubt about what is going on. He claimed that these ambiguities typically tend to vanish in a short time because the related frameworks are essential to the organization of activity. Although there might have been some ambiguity of primary framework in their initial

⁴² On the contrary, all the factors mentioned here, age, residence period, and major, made me uncomfortable when I had to use English in front of them.

⁴³ As "frameworks provide background understanding for events," people's behaviors denote their knowledge of the frame in which they are located (Goffman, 1974, p. 22).

involvement in this study, as time went on, the participants perceived two frames, speaking English in front of a Korean and doing a task in front of an ESL/EFL researcher, and they were hesitant about which frame was primary. While interviewing them, I found that instead of choosing one frame over the other, they tended to put more weight on a frame and showed respective behaviors more often. For example, some participants such as Jin-Su, Ho-Lyn, and Tai-In liked to discuss their performance with ESL/EFL terminology.

Selection of Self-Regulatory Behaviors

Researchers have reported that the occurrence of L2 self-regulatory behaviors was influenced by tasks and their environment, but they stopped there without further investigation (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985; McCafferty, 1992, 1994a, 1994b). In this study, the narration task itself was not familiar to the participants because they had never done such a task in English. Ji-Seong mentioned that he had never before given such a lengthy description in English. In addition, the content of the tasks was unfamiliar because the participants had learned formal and academic English for their academic career. It is also true that the task environment influenced the participants' narratives. For example, they showed many more pauses and fillers in the narration tasks than in their class presentation. They had enough time to narrate at their own speed in the tasks and there was not any risk of losing the floor to speak in the tasks. The fact that there was not a real audience in performing the tasks seemed to make them feel comfortable about the

slow speed of their narration. The fact that they behaved differently in the tasks of this study from their class presentations is well explained by Goffman's Frame Analysis that examines how reality is socially structured (Goffman, 1974). With appropriate ritualized interaction and movements, they could preserve face in the narration tasks (Schiffrin, 1994, 1996).

The fact that they could not prepare for the task made the participants feel especially challenged. Most participants had never performed an English task without any preparation. Su-Beom said that he never did a task without preparation when he spoke in English and he had thought that he always had to be prepared. Speaking in English in front of other Koreans amplified their discomfort and increased their difficulty. This is a general reaction among Koreans.

As shown in the analysis in previous sections, the participants used various self-regulatory behaviors in performing the tasks. They used temporal behaviors such as pauses and fillers, and repeated some parts of their narratives many times to gain time for planning and monitoring. In order to provide better narratives, they corrected or rephrased some parts of their narratives. They showed language-mediated behaviors to control their higher mental function. Some body movements including gestures were used for self-regulation, too. When these behaviors are analyzed within the context in which they were used, some factors that might influence their occurrence become apparent.

Influence from L2 Learning History

Most Koreans have learned English in a formal setting, usually courses in schools. This learning history often leads them to consider English as a subject to study rather than a language to use. Therefore, they tend to focus more on linguistic and formal aspects rather than on the functional aspects of language. First, their learning history has influenced their correction behaviors. Corrections in the narrative tasks were found more often in improving the formal structure of utterances rather than improving their functions. For example, they corrected mistakes in singular-plural agreement and subject-verb agreement, most of which were local errors.

Second, their reliance on academic words rather than colloquial expression also shows the influence of their learning history. Although both tasks were about common topics in everyday life, they sometimes used rather specialized academic words.⁴⁴

indicative, logically, similar, required (from the Picture Narration Task)
conclusive, encountered, environment, eventually, located, reverse,
stability (from the Narrative Recall Task)

Tae-In said during the first interview that he had learned the pronunciation of *pear* recently. Their confessions about their familiarity with using English in an academic situation supports the argument that their L2 learning history influences their self-regulatory behaviors. This result shows the usefulness of the

⁴⁴ The criterion of selecting academic words is based on Headwords of the Word Families in the Academic Word List in Coxhead (2000).

Cummings' (1983) distinction between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP).

Individual Differences

Jin-Su used fillers more often than the other participants, although his English proficiency was measured as higher in the ITA exam. He reported that his style of using fillers was influenced by his father, and he did not consider that his usage of fillers was a problem.⁴⁵ On the contrary, Ji-Seong used fillers only a few times and said that he did not like to use them. He felt anxious about his self-esteem and tried to read his listener's face. He added that he was appreciative when he received a feeling of amity from the listener. Su-Beom shared the same opinion.

One of the most frequent expressions that is used when L2 users encounter difficulty in L2 speaking is '*I don't know how I can say this.*' '*I can't express that*' is another example. These expressions are regulatory in that with the expressions L2 users are able to objectify their mental state and take back to regain mental equilibrium. It is also regulatory in that the expressions can function as indirect requests in an interactive situation. However, these examples also reveal L2 users' struggles directly to their listeners and may generate a negative impression about themselves and their L2 fluency. Therefore, when they use these expressions for self-regulation, they have to pay a "social cost" as well.

⁴⁵ He admitted that he had used fillers more than he had realized.

Interestingly, the “social cost” is small when L2 users are considered beginners by others or by themselves, when the situation is informal, when their conversation partners are sympathetic, and when they consider those expressions acceptable to be used. The last factor, whether they are acceptable, depends on individual difference in using self-regulatory behaviors. Considering the two expressions, June-Hee, Ho-Lyn, and Ki-Myeong said that they would use them, but Jin-Su, Ji-Seong, Su-Beom said that they had tried to avoid them. Su-Beom added that he sometimes used the expressions to gain time in speaking, but such behaviors were not seen as professional at all. Jin-Su used another expression, *what is the word I’m looking for here?*, that has the same meaning. He said that he learned the expression from his professors and felt that the expression showed the speaker’s difficulty in a more professional way.

Therefore, personal preference seems to be another important factor in selecting self-regulatory behaviors. Automatized expressions can be in this category, if it is supposed that the expressions might be acquired and automatized because they are preferred.⁴⁶ Ho-Lyn said that he often used *the* in which other fillers or *well* are used because using *the* as a filler had become his habit from some time in the past. He also said that when he speaks in English, he often stretches out his hands in continuing his talking.

⁴⁶ As such utterances as *I don’t know how I can say this* and *I can’t express that* become automatized, some people use them even unconsciously.

Participants' Reaction to Social Attitude to Use of Self-Regulatory Behaviors

No one likes to reveal that he is in trouble in performing a task and it is recommended not to do that.⁴⁷ This indicates that self-regulatory behaviors may have a negative effect on the task and its performer, although it may have a positive effect on the task performer internally. When the task performer is an adult, the negative attitude to self-regulatory behaviors is easily increased.

This phenomenon can be explained with Gumperz's term, "contextualization cue" and its "situational interpretation" (Gumperz, 1982). L2 self-regulatory behaviors can be seen as contextualization cues from which it is possible to infer that the speaker is in trouble under the contextual presupposition⁴⁸ that the speaker is doing a difficult L2 task. Therefore, if they are able to hide self-regulatory behaviors, it means that they do not provide any cues that indicate their difficulty in performing the task. However, when task difficulty is beyond their ability to control their behaviors, speakers cannot but reveal self-regulatory behaviors. In this sense, it seems reasonable to categorize self-regulatory behaviors as representing an internal, psychological aspect, but not an external, social aspect.

When the participants produced self-regulatory behaviors, they also showed cultural influences on the use of such behaviors. For example, Ji-Seong

⁴⁷ For example, according to a book for improving public speech, using fillers is discouraged. "In the days leading up to your speech, practice, practice, practice. Stand in front of a full-length mirror and give your speech. Tape yourself, then replay the tape listening for poor grammar and filler words such as 'Ah', 'Uh' or 'You know.'" (Retrieved from <http://www.ceosuccess.com/bookc.pdf>, The BizSuccess Book by Gary Lockwood)

⁴⁸ For better understanding of contextual presupposition, Schiffrin (1996) introduced Goffman's frame analysis.

tried to maintain eye contact with the camcorder even though he seemed to focus on his thoughts. During the interview, he said that avoiding eye contact was thought bad. Ho-Lyn said the same thing. Both remarks indicate that their situated inference of eye contact when they spoke in English made them look for other self-regulatory behaviors rather than avoiding eye contact to focus on their thoughts. Moreover, Korean culture also influenced their self-regulatory behaviors. In Korean culture, body movements are not considered good, so Koreans tend to show few gestures while talking.⁴⁹ This inclination was obvious in Tai-In's, Ji-Seong's, and Ki-Myeong's narratives. Ji-Seong took more pauses, instead. Therefore, it seems that the participants tried to use the self-regulatory behaviors that have a situated inference when they encountered a problem, but they were able to control it.

The participants utilized situated meanings of self-regulatory behaviors intentionally to hide their self-regulatory effort. That is, they used behaviors that could be interpreted differently or multiply. For example, the participants often repeated expressions or rephrased them at a minimum to take time for planning and monitoring. They also called the characters by diverse names in the tasks. All these forms were related to the content of the tasks. These types of behaviors were communicative in appearance. Their self-regulatory feature was hidden with the emphasis on its communicative feature. Second, the participants used expressions that were used to show two contrasting meanings, nervousness and composure.

⁴⁹ Therefore, Hong-Chang was called "over-action man" by his friends because of his frequent gestures.

For example, in his class presentation, Jin-Su put a piece of chalk in his hand and rolled it in his palm. He showed the behavior to relax as well as to be tense, but he also wished that his behavior would be interpreted as a token of comfort.

As the participants knew that showing difficulty did not give a good impression, when they could not avoid revealing them, they often smiled or laughed in an awkward way to mitigate their losing face. Tae-In, Ho-Lyn, June-Hee, and Su-Beom smiled bashfully in the middle of their narration when they stopped for a while to retrieve the next utterances. Ho-Lyn, Ji-Seong, and June-Hee showed such gestures when they finished their stories and moved their gaze to look at me.

However, different attitudes were also found in the participants' interviews. Some participants said emphatically, *I'm a non-native speaker*, and *I'm still a learner of English*. Ho-Lyn, June-Hee, and Ki-Myeong mentioned that they did not feel any shame in using any self-regulatory behaviors, but they added that they wanted to reduce mistakes in their speaking and their self-regulatory behaviors.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

In this chapter research conclusions will be drawn based on the findings of the study. The third research question about the relationship between self-regulatory behaviors and L2 communication strategies will be addressed. Theoretical and practical implications will be presented. Limitations of the study will be provided. Future research topics will be suggested.

RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

It is a generally held idea that people do something when they encounter obstacles in achieving a goal that must be attained. Schunk and Zimmerman's (1994a) definition of self-regulation includes considerations of cognitive and affective processes that are triggered when such problems arise. Their views of self-regulation may seem all encompassing, and yet, they have received support from Paris and Winograd (1990). In this study, focused as it was on L2 users, self-regulation was easily triggered when L2 users meet difficulties when required to use their L2 in a situation, they do something to make their use of L2 less difficult and more possible. The 'something' is what is defined as self-regulatory behaviors and was the focus of this study. Throughout this study, it was found that self-regulatory behaviors are used in various forms under contextual influences.

Diverse Forms of Self-Regulatory Behaviors in L2 Speaking

In contrast to the limited inventory of self-regulatory behaviors that have been associated with a Vygotskian approach in second language discourse, there were diverse forms of self-regulatory behaviors in this study. Among them, pauses and fillers appeared significantly often in L2 narratives of the participants in this study. Content-related behaviors such as corrections, repetitions, and rephrasing occurred often. Language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors, mostly metacomments, were a part of the inventory of L2 self-regulatory behaviors. Gestures were used for self-regulatory purposes and some of them were difficult to classify according to the categories that had been established by previous L2 studies of gestures.

The most popular self-regulatory behaviors in the participants' narratives were pauses and fillers. All the participants took more pauses and used more fillers in performing the tasks in English than in Korean, which means that they definitely needed more time to perform the tasks in English. Pauses and fillers may have provided time for planning, monitoring, or thinking out appropriate expressions. There were individual differences in using them. Jin-Su's frequent use of fillers showed the influence of his history in learning languages. The difference in the number of fillers between the English task and the Korean task was rather small, but all the participants often extended fillers longer in the English tasks. The participants varied in the maximum pause length in the English tasks. This difference demonstrates the participants' different endurance of silence while performing a verbal task. Therefore, when a participant took a pause that

was longer than his endurance span, he tended to use a filler or a gesture in the middle of the pause.

Content-related behaviors such as correction, repetition, and rephrasing seemed to be the results of metacognitive monitoring. They seemed also related to L2 knowledge and attention allocation because the participants' corrections were selective. Compared to mistakes they made in the tasks, the number of corrections were few. Among corrections, changes for singular-plural agreement were frequent. The corrections were divided into two kinds: required corrections because of structural problems and corrections due to the content of the story. Corrections for indefinite and definite articles were few. Corrections for subject-verb agreement were made a few times. Interestingly, there were cases in which habitually-used wrong usages of verbs were corrected several times. Among other corrections, observing a specific grammatical rule like the pluralizing of material nouns, often appeared. These corrections showed the speakers' adherence to what they had learned. Rephrasing provided supplementary utterances in order to change some aspects of what was said. Two types of rephrasing were salient. First, most participants often changed the tense of their sentences. In the Picture Narration Task, they tended to change the past tense into the present tense. However, when they performed the Narrative Recall Task, the participants used the past tense often. This difference might have been caused by differences in the presentation of materials. The second type of rephrasing seemed to be used to add a detailed statement to previous words or phrases. The participants specified subjects, objects of verbs, objects of prepositions, and verbs. In many cases when

they had already used pronouns, they added definite phrases in order to prevent any misinterpretation of the pronouns. When they used common nouns, they rephrased them with more specific nouns. All the participants showed many repetitions. In the temporal aspect, two kinds of repetitions were evident. One type was that previous words or phrases were repeated immediately. The second type was that there were pauses between words or phrases and their repetitions. The difference between the two types may be determined according to whether or not they were in the midst of their struggle in planning and searching for their next utterances. In the second type of repetitions, the participants might be struggling for subsequent words while they produced words first. When the unit of repetition is considered, single words and two-word phrases rather than longer units were repeated frequently. In addition, the fact that they often repeated a part of a phrase rather than a whole phrase suggests that they focused less on the content of what they said and more on securing time for their next utterances.

The participants showed several types of language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors. First, they externalized some aspects of the task with naming and often revealed their background knowledge related to naming. For example, Jin-Su's use of *friend* to name the three boys in the Narrative Recall Task exhibited the self-regulatory function of naming. Moreover, the participants often used several names to indicate the characters in the tasks. Many names were ungrammatical and the participants did not keep using the same names to indicate the same characters. Such use was self-regulatory in the sense that the participants were trying to continue telling a story despite their failure to pay attention to what

they had said. Second, in previous studies on L2 private speech, counting objects in a story was considered a language-mediated self-regulatory behavior because counting is one way to make some aspects of a task clearer to a narrator. Only Tai-In counted the monkeys in the Picture Narration Task, but his counting had dual functions: an interactive function and a self-regulatory function to gain time for planning. Third, the thematic usage of pronouns, a form of language-mediated self-regulatory behavior, was found. However, as shown in the diverse expressions in naming characters, the participants were challenged to keep their referencing regular. Fourth, related to other-regulation, not one of the participants provided question forms in their narrative tasks except June-Hee's one Korean question in the English task to ascertain when it would be that he would do the Picture Narration Task in Korean. Fifth, the participants showed their dependence on the frames in which the two tasks were given. The frame, as an object, regulated the participants and influenced their narratives. This phenomenon was more evident in the Picture Narration Task where six pictures were given for the task. Sixth, perspective markers, a type of metacomments, were used in their narratives. Among them, the expressions showing their reserved stance in telling the story were prevalent. All the participants used at least one expression indicating a reserved stance. They also used perspective markers that demonstrated their feelings for the characters in the story and their evaluation of the story. Seventh, metacomments in the opening and closing of their narratives were evidence that they changed their position from that of a research participant to a narrator and from a narrator back to a research participant. The self-regulatory

feature in the expressions can be found in the stammering appearance of the expressions, particularly when they started their narratives. Finally, only June-Hee used L1 expressions in performing the Picture Narration Task in English. His expression is one of self-regulatory behaviors. Considering that his use of Korean in the English tasks might be evaluated negatively, his L1 expression was exceptional.

The participants showed gestures more in the English tasks. It seemed that the difficulty of the English tasks evoked more gestures. However, the participants did not notice their gestures for the most part. Applying the method in Baveleas et al. (1992), three types of self-regulatory gestures were found: pure self-regulatory gestures, interactive gestures, and content-related gestures. Pure self-regulatory gestures were not interactive and did not have semantic meanings. The participants used such gestures as markers of uncertainty and hesitation. These gestures indicated that they were in trouble, regardless of its degree, and they tried to solve the problem. Interactive gestures such as gaze were related to other-regulation. Content-related gestures sometimes showed self-regulatory functions.

The identification of a variety of self-regulatory behaviors in this study was made possible by the adoption of a definition of self-regulation from a broader metacognitive perspective, which contrasted with L2 private speech studies such as those of Frawley and Lantolf (1985) and McCafferty (1992, 1994a, 1994b, 1998). In these studies, researchers have focused on verbal behaviors that showed language-mediation. In order to show the language mediation of the

behaviors, they have depended on the concept of the regulatory function of language and its subcategories, object-regulation and other-regulation. In this study, the participants did show language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors. With the behaviors, they could have a chance to know their tasks better and to provide better narratives, their goals.⁵⁰ In addition, their object-regulatory behaviors such as frame-dependent utterances showed that the tasks themselves regulated the participants through language.

In contrast to the previous L2 private speech studies, adopting a metacognitive perspective in self-regulation in this study made it possible to identify self-regulatory behaviors that were not language-mediated. Instead, in this study, theoretical reasoning was used to judge whether the behaviors were related to metacognitive processes such as planning, monitoring, and controlling. As a result, temporal variables such as pauses and fillers that seemed to be related to planning processes, and content-related behaviors that showed monitoring and controlling aspects of metacognitive processes were revealed. Gestures were also investigated in the same approach. However, the position of language-mediated behaviors may be questionable in this metacognitive framework. This problem seems to be related to the idea of “verbal thought” (Vygotsky, 1986). Vygotsky stated the relationship between thought and language as follows:

⁵⁰ In the following Vygotsky’s comment, there is child object-regulatory behavior as one of their efforts to solve complicated problem: “[C]hildren confronted with a problem that is slightly too complicated for them exhibit a complex variety of responses including direct attempts at attaining the goal, the use of tools, speech directed toward the person conducting the experiment or speech that simply accompanies the action, and direct, *verbal appeals to the object of attention itself* [italics added]” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 30).

Schematically, we may imagine thought and speech as two intersecting circles. In their overlapping parts, thought and speech coincide to produce what is called verbal thought. Verbal thought, however, does not by any means include all forms of thought or all forms of speech. (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 88)

Therefore, if language-mediated behaviors are assumed to be the result of verbal thought, their operation may be different from other self-regulatory behaviors.⁵¹ However, it may be assumed that both types are cooperative but independent.

The remaining question regarding language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors is whether the examples of the behaviors in this study were truly self-regulatory. If so, how can it be proved? Frawley and Lantolf's (1985) rationale provide a hint to an answer, but their answer seems to have intrinsic limitations in persuading those who are not willing to take on a Vygotskian perspective. Frawley and Lantolf claimed that all expressions of L2 discourse are "revelatory" and "relevant," and they tried to locate "externalizations of inner forms during a difficult task for the purpose of controlling the task" (p. 22). As an example of this externalization, they mentioned labeling:

For example, in the second language discourses reported below—in clear contradistinction to the native discourses—there is a proliferation of *naming* participants, events, and sequences of events. We claim that this kind of overt labelling is a manifestation of the externalization of inner knowledge and that it functions not as error, but as a conscious strategy on the part of the producers to control their knowledge of the verbal production from without, rather than from within. (p. 22)

⁵¹ Frawley and Lantolf (1985) understood that verbal thought and inner speech are the same (p. 21).

When Frawley and Lantolf analyzed verbal expressions to identify the controlling aspect in L2 discourses, they chose micro-analysis to analyze the details of language data and functional analysis to focus on functions rather than on linguistic forms in the data. This functional approach has an intrinsic limitation because functions of verbal expressions are individualistic and sensitive to their context. Therefore, in this study, participants' confirmations were sought to overcome such an intrinsic limitation.

Social Influence on Using L2 Self-Regulatory Behaviors and the Participants' Reaction to their Use

One important result of this study was the identification of different kinds of influence of the social context on L2 self-regulatory behaviors. The first kind of influence seemed related to the development of self-regulatory behaviors. As this social influence interacts with individuals' own constructions of reality based on experience and biological differences, people develop their own style in self-regulation. In a culture, as people are in a similar social context, they share some aspects of the process of self-regulation, which enables them to understand the self-regulatory behaviors of others. The second influence of social context occurs when individuals come to use self-regulatory behaviors. When they select self-regulatory behaviors, several factors may influence their decisions. Their formal learning of English may make them focus more on linguistic and formal aspects than on functional aspects of language. For example, for the participants in my

study, their corrections in the tasks were found more often to be aimed at improving formal structures of utterances rather than improving their functions. Their reliance on academic words rather than on colloquial expressions indicated another influence of their English learning history. Individual differences also seemed to influence their selection of self-regulatory behaviors. For example, although Ji-Seong used fillers a few times, he stated that he did not like to use them because he felt a loss of self-esteem whenever he did. As another example, there were also individual differences in using “*I don’t know how I can say this*” and “*I can’t express that.*” Although these expressions are self-regulatory, it seemed that more fluent speakers like Jin-Su did not want to use them and looked for alternatives, but less fluent speakers like June-Hee and Ho-Lyn found them acceptable.

Most participants agreed that they preferred to use publicly observed self-regulatory behaviors as infrequently as possible because they believed that such use might be evaluated negatively. Therefore, they preferred to hide such behaviors or to use multi-functional behaviors in order to hide or disguise their self-regulatory efforts. Interestingly, some participants showed a different attitude by saying, “*I’m a non-native speaker,*” and “*I’m still a learner of English.*” These participants stated that they did not feel any shame in saying these expressions. However, this attitude did not mean that these individuals were not just as concerned as others to try to make their English narratives as smooth and correct as possible.

In this study, the influence of social context on using self-regulatory behaviors was analyzed by introducing such sociolinguistic concepts as frame and contextualization cues and their situated inferences. With these concepts, the participants' reaction to social attitudes toward self-regulatory behaviors and their selection of self-regulatory behaviors could be investigated. This attempt represents an advance when compared to previous L2 private speech studies in that in these earlier studies, self-regulatory behaviors were found and listed according to a framework, but no systematic approach to investigate the social context of self-regulatory behaviors was attempted.⁵²

Self-Regulation as a Fundamental Principle of L2 Communication Strategies

Many of the L2 self-regulatory behaviors identified as part of this study have been considered as communication strategies (CSs) in L2 communication studies. For example, while extending the definition of CSs, Dornyei (1995) named "the use of lexicalized pause-fillers and hesitation gambits" *stalling strategies* because those behaviors help L2 users "gain time to think and keep the communication channel open" (Dornyei & Scott, 1997, p. 178). Corrections, paraphrases, and repetitions have been widely discussed as CSs (Willems, 1987;

⁵² Frawley's (1997) recent comment only hinted at the need of systematic investigation of social context: "These three sources [direct verbal appeals to the object, appeals to the experimenter for help, and appeal to themselves] that individuals use in "applying a social attitude to themselves" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 27) bring out two important points. First, they have a developmental order, from object to other to self as the highest form of control. But since all developmental stages are symmetric and recoverable, an individual can traverse this sequence at will (literally), given the demands of a task. An adult's metaconsciousness may thus be object-regulated in one circumstance and self-regulated in another" (1997, p. 98). His second point was to emphasize the cultural characteristics of regulatory behaviors.

Tarone & Yule, 1987). In a table in Dornyei and Scott (1997) are listed self-repair, self-repetition, and self-rephrasing as categories of communication strategies (p. 190). Rohde (1985) named pauses and other temporal phenomena in L2 speaking as “safe islands onto which the speaker can jump when experiencing problems and Edmondson and House (1981) and Faerch and Kasper (1984) mentioned subtle discourse roles of fillers (Dornyei & Scott, 1997, p. 193). Self-regulatory gestures also appear in lists of the categories of CSs including mime and nonverbal indirect appeal for help. Some language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors are mentioned as “strategy markers” (Dornyei & Scott, 1997, p. 194; Clark, 1994).

Since the term “communication strategy” was introduced by Selinker (1972), CSs have been investigated as an isolated phenomenon, but in the 1990s, they began to be studied as part of cognitive processes. Bialystok’s (1990) cognitive framework is an example, but her psychological approach, *analysis* and *control*, and the distinction between analysis-based strategies and control-based strategies seems limited in terms of accounting for the mental processes in using CSs in L2 speaking. As a solution, Poulishse (1993) introduced Levelt’s (1989) speaking model and modified it only as necessary, as did de Bot (1992). According to Poulishse, CSs are employed when the speaker encounters a lexical problem, a failure in finding lexical items from his or her mental lexicon. Poulishse (1993) listed three types of CSs, Message Abandonment, Appeals for Assistance, and Compensatory Strategy, and described how they work. In order to explain

different uses of CSs according to proficiency and tasks, she presented two principles:

To explain the proficiency- and task-related differences in the relative use of particular CS types, we will assume that speakers who are confronted with lexical problems will adhere to the general principles of communication in attempting to solve these problems. Two principles that seem to be particularly important in this respect are the *Least Effort Principle* and the *Cooperative Principle*. The Least Effort Principle dictates that the speaker should use the CS which requires the least processing effort. The Cooperative Principle requires him to make sure that his CS is comprehensible to the interlocutor(s). Ideally, the speaker will use a CS that allows him to meet both demands at the same time; he will attempt to use a CS that requires little effort and is also comprehensible. (Poulisse, 1993, p. 184)

Then, as she admitted that there are a number of factors that influence the choice between these two principles, she listed five factors that could explain differences in L2 speaking. The five factors are task demands, cognitive complexity of the task, time constraints, supporting context, and the opportunity to obtain feedback from an interlocutor (Poulisse, 1993, p. 185).

Compared to the previous approach in which CSs were dealt with as an isolated phenomenon, it is desirable that CSs be incorporated in cognitive mechanisms, as has been done in Poulisse's application of Levelt's speaking model. However, this model still lacks consideration of the metacognitive process, its basic principles, and its resultant self-regulatory behaviors. In addition, the cognitive speaking model comes up short in considering the social context and regulatory function of language. This is where the concept of self-regulation is

necessary, and that is the reason why CSs need to be understood as self-regulatory behaviors.

The word *communication* in *communication strategies* is used based on the consideration of the situation in which L2 is used. In this sense, the term, communication strategy, is social rather than psychological.⁵³ In the situation, there are mutual attempts of interlocutors to negotiate meaning for comprehensible communication. However, there are also individuals' internal attempts to produce comprehensible utterances. Tarone's (1980) distinction between communication strategies and production strategies reveals these two aspects of the communicative situation. However, viewing behaviors that are labeled communication strategies as self-regulatory places the focus on the individual's internal struggles in the situation. Introducing a Vygotskian perspective, this viewpoint is also related to the consideration of the social context and the socially-developed regulatory function of language.

The component that is related to metacognition in Levelt's model is the conceptualizer in which the message is generated.⁵⁴ In the conceptualizer, there is also a monitoring process that receives feedback from the speech-communication system that parses both internal and overt speech. The conceptualizer in which planning and monitoring occur is always under a fundamental principle of

⁵³ Schiffrin (1996) explained the sociological notion of *definition of a situation* of Cooley (1902) with saying, "What we know about, and what we expect to find, in a particular activity (or situation) provides information by which we characterize and define that activity (or situation)" (p. 316).

⁵⁴ The other components in the model are largely automatic. The automaticity of the components explains why speaking production usually occurs so quickly.

continual attention to attempting to achieve a goal in spite of difficulties. The *Least Effort Principle* and the *Cooperative Principle* in Poulisse (1993) can be seen as derived from the original principle, self-regulation. The principle of self-regulation can be realized as the self-regulation process. Therefore, as a result of monitoring, self-regulatory behaviors appear when they are required. In addition, as this self-regulation process is developed through the mediation of regulatory utterances, and as language has a special status in human mental processing, language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors appear without consciousness. These self-regulatory behaviors can be labeled communication strategies whenever we shift our focus to a social situation in which an utterance is used.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have both theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical Implications

Diverse forms of self-regulation were identified in this study. The adoption of a metacognitive perspective in defining self-regulation and explaining relevant behaviors made possible the recognition of these diverse forms. This is a major difference between this study and previous studies on L2 private speech. Former studies have focused on language-mediated self-regulatory behaviors because mediation through language was a key point there. However, when the

whole process of L2 speaking is considered, their approach seems to be too narrow.

Replacing private speech with the concept of language-mediated self-regulatory behavior is another implication of this study. Private speech is useful as an explanatory term for self-regulatory behaviors in a solitary situation, but this situation is not common for L2 users. Usually their situation is communicative, not solitary. Therefore, it may be inappropriate to label as “private speech” L2 speakers’ actions in the face of difficulties in pursuing their goals in communication situation. However, it is useful to extract and use the regulatory function of language from the term of private speech. Therefore, in this study, “private speech” is replaced with “language-mediated self-regulatory behavior.” This new name captures the concept of language as a mediation tool and its regulatory function in certain situations.

This study may provide a theoretical foundation for the claim made by Frawley and Lantolf (1985):

Speaking is the exercise of control of objects, of others, and of self. Seen in this light, communication strategies take on a very different interpretation and, in fact, the rather cumbersome and purely descriptive taxonomies proposed by researchers such as Faerch and Kasper (1983) can be reduced to three, and, more importantly, they take on an explanatory function, an aspect noticeably absent in the research on communication strategies. (p. 42)

However, their claim does not recognize that utterances in speaking are not the only regulatory constituent. As shown in this study, temporal variables

such as pauses, fillers, and gestures can also be regulatory. Therefore, more regulatory behaviors need to be added to the inventory of self-regulatory behaviors. In addition, new efforts to explain communication strategies with cognitive speaking models also need to be considered because with this model, metacognitive processes in speaking will be clearer.

Practical Implications

Communication is more than transmission of information between speakers and listeners. This study showed the existence of a self-regulatory process in using language. This result confirmed the Frawley and Lantolf's (1985) claim that "communication involves more than the sending and receiving of messages and has everything to do with the maintenance of control in speaking tasks" (p. 42). In addition, this study emphasized the importance of social context in using those behaviors.⁵⁵ Therefore, in teaching situations, both the self-regulatory process in communication and the role of contextual influences on the process have to be considered.

As the self-regulatory process is identified in L2 speaking, it is possible to build "a training task" in which L2 learners are conscious of their use of self-regulatory behaviors and apply their learning in "a strategy transfer task" that is different from the training task but has the equivalent structure (Hacker, 1998, p.

⁵⁵ The importance of social context is also emphasized by ecological approach in which language and learning are seen as relationships among learners and between learners and the environment (van Lier, 2000).

16). As shown in the interview with the participants, it is highly possible that L2 learners do not have enough understanding of their internal processes in L2 speaking. Therefore, at first, formal explanations of self-regulation and its manifestations will be helpful. In the course of the explanation, the analysis of students' actual behaviors can be added to help them check how they use those behaviors. Then, a step-by-step procedure to automatize their new knowledge through practice seems appropriate. After finishing this series of activities in a training task, learners could apply their acquired skills in a strategy transfer task.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

First, caution should be taken when interpreting the results because in qualitative studies, research validity, or trustworthiness of the findings, is always an important issue. Validity issues could have been further addressed by employing practices such as negative case analysis, clarification of researcher bias, or rich description (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Silverman, 2000).

Although generalization was not the focus of this study, the small number of participants and their limited data may limit any attempt to generalize the results of this study. In addition, the participants and the researcher in this study were Koreans, and there might be certain cultural issues embedded in this study that might be different for individuals from other cultures.

Another limitation of the study comes from the nature of think-aloud protocols and interviews. The participants may offer what they think the

researcher wants to see. There is also the possibility of providing only what they think the researcher wants to find in the study.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

From this preliminary study on L2 self-regulatory behaviors, a number of areas have emerged for further research. Replication of this study or a modified versions of this study will be helpful to validate the present findings. Choosing participants from a different group according to proficiency level, cultural background, and L2 learning history will provide opportunities to observe whether the same or different types of self-regulatory behaviors appear. Modification of the study will contribute to the inventory of self-regulatory behaviors in L2 speaking. Changing task formats or task materials will also be helpful. In this study, the tasks required a solo performance. Therefore, they were less relevant to the more common situations in which L2 is used. Narrative materials in this study were appropriate, but L2 users may have to use other kinds of material in real situations. For example, individuals like the participants in this study are mostly asked to provide expository narratives or academic presentations.⁵⁶ In-depth think-aloud protocols in which each self-regulatory behavior is checked with task performance will provide concrete grounds for explaining the behaviors. Instead of artificial settings like the one in this study,

⁵⁶ The full analysis of the participants' oral presentations in their communicative course is wanting, but in this study the comparison was focused between the results of the previous L2 private speech studies and the results of this study in which self-regulation and self-regulatory behaviors were redefined.

eliciting self-regulatory data manifested in a real situation may provide a chance to understand the reality of self-regulation and its expression.

A quantitative approach to factors that influence the selection of self-regulatory behaviors would be interesting. A quantitative consideration of social contextual factors in which self-regulatory behaviors are employed would make correlation possible. This approach would also lend itself the study of preference among self-regulatory behaviors.

Investigating self-regulatory behaviors as expressed in prosodic features like intonation, stress, loudness might provide a chance to investigate how the behaviors are related to micro-aspects in L2 speaking. In this study, the participants often stressed words that simply occurred to their memory after their struggle to retrieve them. The lengthening of certain words or phrases often occurred in the participants' narratives. The distribution of lengthening is also worth investigating because this phenomenon is related to units of time programming in speech, which is also related to metacognitive processes such as planning and monitoring.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: CONSENT FORM

Self-regulatory Verbal/Nonverbal Behaviors in Second Language Learners' Speaking

You are invited to participate in a study of verbal/nonverbal behaviors when Korean learners speak in English. My name is Youngwoo Kim and I am a graduate student of Foreign Language Education at The University of Texas at Austin, USA. I am conducting this research to partially fulfill requirements for my dissertation. I hope to learn characteristics of Korean learners' self-control behaviors. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are currently engaged in learning English. You will be one of 8 participants chosen to participate in this study.

If you decide to participate, I will ask you to fill out a questionnaire and to perform two specific tasks: a narrative recall task and a picture narration task. During the tasks, I will videotape and audiotape you. Within 2 days of each task, I will interview you as we watch and listen to the taped data. In addition, with permission of your teacher, I will videotape one of the times when you are giving an oral presentation in your class. I will also interview you as we watch this videotape together. During the interviews, you can say anything that you think is related to your English speaking. In the course of your participation in this study, additional class observation may be held with your and your teacher's permissions. You may feel some nervousness or stress while performing the tasks, but they are not different from those in other learning experience. As possible benefits from this study, you will have a chance to see your verbal/non-verbal behaviors while speaking in English, to understand what they are, and perhaps to overcome any problems.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. All the data will be stored in a safe place and will be destroyed upon the completion of the study in order to protect your confidentiality.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your grades in the current English class or your future relations with The University of Texas at Austin. If you decide to participate, you are free to discontinue participation at any time simply by telling me.

You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates that you have read the information provided above and have decided to participate. You may withdraw at any time after signing this form.

If you have any questions, please ask me. If you have any additional questions later, Youngwoo Kim at (512) 479-0168 or youngwookim@mail.utexas.edu, or Dr. Diane Schallert, Ph.D., who is a supervising professor of my dissertation at (512) 471-4078 in SZB 528, D6500, The University of Texas at Austin, USA, will be happy to answer them. You may keep a copy of this form. If you let me know your address, I will send a copy to you directly.

Signature of Participant _____ Date _____.

Signature of Investigator _____ Date _____.

APPENDIX B: TRANSCRIPTS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' NARRATIVES

The followings are the participants' narratives from the Picture Narration Task and the Narrative Recall Tasks.

Convention of Transcriptions

- Sudden stop or truncation
- (did) A good guess at an unclear word
- (xxx) Unclear word for which a good guess can be made as to how many syllables were uttered, with "x" = one syllable
- / .5 second \leq pause < 1 second⁵⁷
- // 1 second \leq pause < 2 seconds
- /// 2 seconds \leq pause < 3 seconds
- //// 3 seconds \leq pause < 4 seconds
- ///// 4 seconds \leq pause < 5 seconds
- ///// 5 seconds \leq pause < 6 seconds

In the Picture Narration Task, transcripts are divided by each picture and the number of each picture is marked by # and its number. A pause that is less than 0.5 second is not counted because they cannot sometimes be distinguished from normal temporal distance between words. In addition, in order to get the idea of the length of pauses, pauses are classified by second with the number of slashes. Although intonation, accent, and gestures are not transcribed here, they will be mentioned if it is necessary for the discussion. The Korean narratives are also omitted. The order of transcripts is the same to the order of the participants and the transcript of the Picture Narration Task comes first.

Jin-Su

Picture

⁵⁷ Pauses were counted when they lasted in .5 seconds at least or more. As .5 second is used the minimum length of pause, pauses whose range is from .2 to .4 were not counted.

#1: uh this seems like/ uh// depicting a countryside/ atmosphere and a couple of animals// and uh uh very old man sitting/ just near the big tree/// and// ah this old man seems to be selling or gathering some hats// that are ah very similar// with each other in terms of its shapes// and there is a big tree as I said// they're they're seem to be uh monkeys I'm not quite sure about// what they ar- what they are but to me it looks like/ ah monkeys are hanging around/ with each other ahm/ with some/// monkeys/// on the branches of a tree// this is very- a very peaceful/ uh/// picture// at the back side there are two houses/ on the hill// OK

#2: now/ uh/ a couple of monkeys are getting down/ from the tree// with uh that old man// ah seemingly sleeping/// ah leaning the tree// and the monkeys// who are playing on the ground// are having some hats// from the basket// and one/ monkey is getting up/ the tree once again with/ a hat uh with his hand/// OK seems like every monkey has/ uh/ at least one/ hats//// uh// in their arms

#3: ah// well// the next picture is/ every monkey all the monkeys are// on the trees// with/ the old man's hats// now the old man has been uh/ awake/// uh/ and he seems to be thinking of what happened

#4: OK now it looks like the old man is ah begging/ the monkeys to get ah the hats back/ to him/ and/// but the monkeys are not likely to get the- uh hats back to the old man// so/ this is an- a- a little bit sad situation for him- for the old man

#5: OK now the old man seems to be ahm giving up a little bit// and sitting/ (under the) tree once again but still looking at some monkeys/ uh playing uh/ his hats

#6: OK now ah the monkeys are ah dropping down the the hats/ to the old- old man and old man seems to be very happy about/ the monkeys' decisions/// uhm/ probably ah the old man ah should be// think something/ uh/// which is ah indicative of his gratitude/ to monkeys

Movie

Ah there was a man who were- who was picking up/ ah the pears from the tree/ ahm// it/ ah/// the tr- ah the pears trees were located ahm around the countryside/ which seem to be very peaceful ahm// ahm environment/// and on the let- ah using the ladder ah the gu- the guy has uhm/ climbed uh the pear tree to pick up/ some pears and getting down to the ground// to put ah the pears picked up (went) into- into some baskets// ahm//// while he was he was working ah of picking up ah some pears/ there was uh a little boy// uh who was/ uh riding a bicycle//

approached uh him and hi- ah his tree// and// seems like without notice- without noticing him/ ah the boy had ah seemingly stolen one basket which is uh full of/ the pears// and// the boy/ uh/// had/ uhm//// came back/ uhm/// uhm/// uhm to the place where he was coming from/ uhm still uh riding a bicycle/ and suddenly he met on the road/ a little girl who was uh quite a attractive to him// and/ uhm/// but unfortunately uh when he was looking at her/ without uh carefully driving his uh bike- bicycle/ he uh fell into- (in) fell into ground because/ uh he stumbled on the block// and because of that ah the/ the full basket of pears/ uhm/ uh// completely rolled around/ on the street/// so he was quite uhm perplexed about the situation/ but// uh/ from behind the tree/ uh// the uh/// uh/// uhm his friends or/ some other/ uhm/ country boys had approached him to help him/ to uh put those pears into the basket ah once again// and uhm// so uh after completing of/ putting that pears into the basket the boy who has stolen the basket uhm/ uhm// uh rided a bicycle once again uh heading to his own destination and/ three of friends or three uh country boys/ um are heading their own ways/ and three boys or uhm/ uhm by chance approaching the tree and the country man who was picking up that- that pears/ and when the- when three boys were passing him/ uhm/ with ah the pears with their hands// uh the country man (all of) appear to be thinking that ah ah// it was ahm those three boys who had stolen my pears// and but afterwards ah afterwards but in the end I mean there were no// sort of uhm conclusive ahm// ahm/ findings about who had stolen or who had helped or who had been stolen things like that OK

Tae-In

Picture

#1: picture number one/ there is a tree// on the tree/ are a lot of monkeys one two three four five monkeys on the tree// and under the tree there is ah// a- old man/ have a// have a long// mustache and/ wearing a hat/ on his on his head and/ around the tree there is a two- three baskets of// hats/ probably he seems a// he seems a guy selling the hat and// hm over the- over the tree there is a small hill and hm on the hill there is tw- two small houses

#2: picture number two// hm/ almost the same picture of number one but except// the monkeys on the tree// get down to the ground and playing with- with some hats// and the guy selling hat// taking uh is taking a nap/ so he didn't he doesn't rec- he seems doesn't recognize/ the monkeys

#3: picture number three// uh/ the guy/ waked and// recognized the all the monkeys are having/ having his hat/ so he was surprised about that

#4: picture number four// the guy is stand up and/ shouting out to the monkeys/ like a give me my hat// and the monkeys also playing/ uh uh the monkeys looks very joyful with the hat

#5: picture number five//// he hm when he/ take off the his hat/ and scratching his head/ all the monkeys// mimicking his his gesture

#6: picture number six/// so the guy// threw threw out his hat so all the monkeys/ follow his gestures so he got/ all the all his hats

Movie

um hm//// I wanna tell you about the video/ titled the pear story/ uh//uhm (x-) there is-/ there is a story of the pear/ uhm// at the very first of the video there is a guy/ he was/ harvesting/ pears on the tree/ so he is very very careful to// uh pick up every each pears down to the basket/ and then he// he go up to the/ tree and/ pick up/ the pears and then// put them down to the basket again/ in the meanwhile/ there is a- a boy riding bicycle/ he he// he found the pear basket under the tree/ so he// he// hm him/ hesitate what about/ uhm/ stealing some of the pears but/ uh/ uh it- it- that time he the boy recognize the guy gathering the pear did- does not recognizing him so he decided to steal whole basket whole a basket of pears/ and so he the boy// the boy put the basket on his bicycle and riding down the hill/ uh/ on the- on the way down the hill he// he meet another uh he meet a girl riding bicycle/ right opposite side of the-/ the road so he/ wen- uh during he watching her him// he lose the control of his bicycle so he got accident/ so he hurt his/ knee and the/ pear basket was// put down to the ground uh there is a three boys watching the accident and they are/ helping him and gathering gathering again the pears on the basket and/ even even they/ even they get back to him his his hat/ so/ the/ the boy steal steal the/ pear basket was very impressed so he/ gave them three of pears even even all of them is not/ not not his own pears// so// after that the three three good boys having// pears uhm walking walking through the/ guy gathering pear/ and eventually the//// the guy/ the guy saw the three of good boys but// he didn't recognize it/ the pears was/ was he-/ was he his- his one// uh so/ that's the end of the story

Hong-Chang

Picture

#1: In this picture shows uh/ ah one person is uh under the tree and there are// five uh// monkeys are/ are staying in the branch// the beside uh I mean the person under the tree is uh ah looks quite old/ and beside him there are several caps/ ah// ah on the bucket/ in the- the baskets

#2: The next pictures// ah the monkeys are playing with a// the hat beside the/ uh/ uh/ monkeys//// they are playing with the hats on the bucket// but the the old guy/ are taking nap so he didn't recognize/ the other ah other monkeys are playing with his hats

#3: The when he// wake up/ he recognize the that/ the monkeys are/ wearing the his hat// and he was shocked

#4: He is uh yelling at the monkeys// ah// but the/ monkeys are/ ah// ah (what) make noise/ and they're- they look enjoy// they look enjoy playing over/ uh ha-their- his hat

#5: And when the old man take off his hat// the monkeys are are// ah also// take their hats and/ they mimic the old man's be- behavior

#6: Ah when the old man throw his hat/ into ground// the the monkeys/ also throwed their hat/ to the ground

Movie

ah the video shows that there- there/ ah shows that there there there was uh one farmer/ who is uh harvesting his uh he looks pears// he looks pears/ and uh what at- the- while the he harvesting the pears there are some several things happened// it show it- it shows uh the that scenery// at- fir-/ ah// ah/ at- at- at first while he is uh gathering the// pears in the tree// the one/ uh one person which and uh/ one one person passing by the/ the basket whi-/ the basket which has uh/ uh which contained the several/ pears// uh uh basket of pears// and the next time while he was uh/ ah picking up the/ ah pears// ah/ ah the/ one guy who riding bike- bicycle/ uh (he who)/ one guy one uh uh little boy riding the bike passing by the/ uh// by the of- basket of uh// pears// uh he look up the look around the/ uh basket and he recognize a farmer is uh/ uh picking of in- in- in the trees// he ah/ it looks he robbed a basket of uh/ pears// and he/ uh// robbed the pe- uh pears/ he's uh he he put the the basket of pears in his bike and he went away// and when he encountered a girl who has uh// who has uh rode a bike// uh// ah (x) bike he lost

his uh/ uh/ stability and he fell down and he his uh/ uh his uh pear of basket of pears uh/ sprea- spread out on the ground// at that time the- there are several little kids/ (or) they're/ they helped uh// him to/ uh// to/ uh to// to stand up his uh bike and uh/ they gathered uh// they're uh they're gathered peach and uh put them/ in a basket again/// and// and then they are// ah they leaved the that place// after that they/ looked a hat on the ground/ one of them/ gave that kid- gave the/ hat to the/ the little boy/ who uh riding bike// the/ the the little guy/ riding bike/ gave that gave uh/ uh one of uh the kids/ uh several pears/ for/ uh expressing his uh/ apprebe- (be) appreciation//// and the three kids// are passing by the// uh// the// the// are passing by the// tr- tree// the/ the farmer is gathering the his uh// his pears/// farmer recognize one of uh/ basket- (uh) one of uh his uh// baskets// containing/ the pears// are missed it is missed/ and they/ he looks/ that he has uh suspicion to the/ three kid three kids because uh they are carrying// they are carrying his uh uh pears

Ho-Lyn

Picture

#1: ah// ah// a- a old man hm/ uh sitting he's sitting under the tree and/ ah five monkeys are// ah// below the (other)// above the/ on the tree// so/ the old man/ ah ah he's watching the monkeys and/ besides him/ a lot of hats/ ah are located

#2: and ah/ a old man/ uh nodding/ he's nodding uh the monkeys/ catch the hats be- beside the/ old man/ and/ pl- play with it

#3: uh// while the/ the the monkeys are (x) are playing with the hats/ the old man/ is awake and/ surprised at the at-// ah seeing the monkeys/ playing with the hat/ his hat

#4: so the old man asked the the monkeys/ to/ (you are) give back the hats but/ the monkeys did not agree with uh/ with him (so)// the monkeys (is) (played) uh continues to play/ the with the hats

#5: ah// ah// uh/ yeah/ I think this picture is ah hm/// when a man when old man ah// ah// take off her- uh his hat// uh// and uh monkeys also/ ah take off his hat// uh/ they all// ah both so/ he just// ah// ah ah I can't express that// hm/ (they did)/ just uh// surprise to each other// that's I think that's the end

#6: uh yeah/ after that/// hm///// the monkey monkeys uh return// ah their hat/ to the old man// and the old man// now now laughed/ aloud// that's the end of story

Movie

ah/ I will say I'll say the pear story of the (of the)/ (which is) hm/ I already/ ah/ view/ ah// a man a man hm/ hm is harvesting his pear/ uh on uh on the tree/ hm// and/ he uh ah/ hm// hm// hm by accident uh// uh throw down one pear on the ground/ the uh after/ hm finish/ after finishing harvesting pear on the tree and he/ uh walk down from the ladder/ and// he pick the the// the pear uh thrown (x) down to the ground/ so I think he uh is hm he likes and/ hm loves his/ uh harvestings/ uh very much/ uh/ after returning ah climb returning/ uh/ climbing on the tree/ uh a man uh// was passing by the/ trees with his goat and but/ uh/ he don't/ the the passing man don't// uh// uh even think about the// pear/ because the he he knows that/ uh the/ the man on the tree hm pear tree/ uh likes his harvesting very much he knows/ he seems to know that/ uh after little while uh/ the/ uh a man a young man uh seems to/ the his son the the man on the tree/ son/ hm// uh putting the/ the/ the harvestings pears on his bicycle and/ uh return uh/ intend to return/ to his home// uh// when he uh uh was returning to his home/ uh uh young man// also hm bike/ uh her bicycle across the// hm/ reverse direction hm to the reverse direction/ and she ah hm// want seems to (oh) / (uh) want to play with him uh the young man and her cast the// his hat/ uh from him and/ hm// uh after uh surprising/ that uh he uh/ fell/ down/ on the ground/ and the pear on the bicy- bicycle was spread out on the ground/ uh// but uhm he just uhm hm/ hm was se- seem/ the girl uh passing by him/ hm/ but when he uh was felled down on the ground/ hm/ uh// three young mans (x) (seems to)/ uh be a friend of him hm/ was passing by him/ and/ they ah hm/ make him stand up/ and uh make (her) stand uh make uh bicycle stand up and/ gathering the the pears uh spreaded on the ground// uh and/ say uh/ bye to each other and/ a man a- a son and hm/// (xx) their friends/ uh uh/ separate from to each other/ but/ when the three ah uh/ the friends// ah is hm/ was/ uh/// hm across the ah/ ah walk along this ah the (look) road/ they found the the hats/ hat on on the ground so/ he called him/ he call the young boy/ and/ (x) intended to return/ his hat/ so/ uh uh/ one/ hm young man return to him/ so uh after returning to him/ he uh returned the/ uh hat/ to him/ after that/ uh/ he gave uh he receive the/ three pears/ from him/ from the young boy/ uh/ uh// after separating from the to each other the three uh hm// friends// hm was the hm// walking along the the road// and// when they passing by/ pass by/ the trees// (x xx) that- that is/ a a man (in) the harvest/ a man harvest uh he (just) continue continuing to/ harvesting his pear/ uh// when he hm//// went down to the ground/ the young young three young mans/ was passing by him/ and he think ah he thought the/ the pears/ on the/ hm/

the/ hands of three uh young boys/ so/ he thinks/ he felt// uh/ it's very// it was very// ah// ah// ah hopeless/// that's the end of story

Ji-Seong

Picture

#1: an old man/ rest/ under the tree on the/ the tree there's/ several monkeys/ they are playing// at (their)// tree/ and I think that the- the old man// uh sell/ some/ hats hats/ ahm// the hats are/ in some baskets

#2: and/ the monkeys are// monkeys are going down and// takes some// hats in the basket/ and they are/ playing with the hats// on the tree and under the tree

#3: I thought (x) that the old man/ was sleeping// when/ the monkeys// are picking some hats// suddenly/ the old man/// wok- wake up and// he was supri at- surprised at/// when he realized// realized (that) // hats// the monkey (mo-) realized that monkey/ get some hats and they're playing with it with them/// of uh (on) the tree

#4: and he stand up and yell/// at the monkeys// and he grab his///// hm his hand/ and (took) // and yelling/ he's yelling// so the monkeys/// mimic// (their)///// the old man's/ behavior

#5: when he when he ah// take off his hat/ and/ thinking about something/ the// the monkeys/// do same thing// following following the old man/// they are/ taking off/ their hats// and///// foll- follow/ the motions/ ah the old man// do

#6: so/ the old man/// think/// the old man got a clue- get a clue/ and the old man/// after a while the old man// do something/ and he just/ take off the hats/ and/ throw it// on the ground/ and/ and then the monkeys// do same thing and they also/ throw it throw them// away/ on the ground///// the old man's// the wise man/// get (their) and- (x) succeed// he uh what he want to do//// ahm// and//////// and he finally// get the get (their) ah// what he want

Movie

the season was fall/ and it's ah/ harvest season// a man uh// ride-/ ride uh/ get on the tree// and uh to pick// up// the pears on the tree// and he// pick/ uh pears out uh one by one/ and put on// his ap- apron// and he///// get off the tree and// pick out/

the pears/ from the ap-/ his apron/ and put/ them on the basket// and//// he uh/
 after// doing that he//// ride/ the// the ladder//// and then/ ride uh on the tree/ again/
 and when he// was doing- uh// pick them off/ again//// uh/ a man who bring a goat//
 passed by/ under the tree// but//// ahm/ he just passed by/ he/ he/ saw the pear but
 he/ didn't (do)// he didn't uh (x) do anything// and (the)// when the// the guy on
 the tree/ pick out the/ pears// uh a- a- a boy/ riding a bicycle// approaching to the//
 tree// and he just got off// from the bicycle and/ he///// he st- stole the pears// when
 uh// the guy on the tree/ didn't notice// about that and he// put that put/ uh one of
 the/ baskets// on his bicycle and he// s-/ saw the man on the tree/ ah// but he just
 (x)// got on the/ bicycle and// he run (x) run away// and when he// was ru-
 running away/ from the tree and the guy/ he ah// met uh a girl on the bicycle// on
 the road/ and he just that// saw uh- when he jus- when he/ saw the// girl passing
 by/ he// fall- fallen he- he- he-/ fell from the bicycle and the pears// was messed
 up on the/ road// when he// hurt and/ he// s- s- saw// whether his/ leg is/ OK/ or
 not// the three boys/ coming by and// they helped/ to/ pick/ up the pears on the
 road// ah/ put- put on the basket// and// the boy/ (who)// uh the boy ah stand up
 and// maybe he he thank to// the three boys/ and//he just uhm//// went to// went//
 on his way// and the// one of the three boys/ uh pick// uh/ his// hat/ and// passed/
 to/ the boy// and the the- the three boys//////// came to the// ah// pear trees/ and//
 when they uh they are they/ were approaching to the trees// the guy/ who pick out
 the pears// was surprised at/ seeing// one of the- his basket/ is stolen/ was stolen/
 and// he just (x)// so uh he- he-// he just wan- wa (were) he was wondering what
 happens/ at who stolen who stole it/ and just he// saw the three boys/ passing by
 the trees// that's it

June-Hee

Picture

#1: there is/ several chip chimpan- chimpanzee// on the tree// and/ the old man is//
 sitting// under the tree

#2: and// it seems that chimpanzee is taking/ hat from old guy// the old man is//
 is// be sleepy (is) sleep

#3: hm// but// I don't know the reason why but old guy is wake up and he
 surprise/ by all of his hat is taken off by chimpanzees

#4: and//// he// he he required the chimpanzee to/ bring back his hat/ but the chimpanzee// chimpanzee is not // I don't know how to explain

#5: hmhm//// but hm// when old guy take off his hat/ he has no hair/ and chimpanzee// is also/ have the same// same shape ('I don't know' in Korean)

#6: hm//// it seems they are/ change/ they the chimpanzee changed his mind to bring back/ the hat to the old guy and old guy/ old guy seem to be very happy to be able to get his/ hat// to be returned

Movie

there is one peach tree/ and one farmer/ is picking up peach from the tree/it seem to harvest/ his fruit// and// after he picking up peach from the tree/ he// he how/ how can I (to) speak// hm he bring it down to earth and/ get together/ into several box- basket// and// during his harvest time// two people crossed by first one// first one who-/ cross by crossed by/ is the man who bringing cow/ and the cow stop by/ in right in front of the tree/ to/ smell the/ pe- pear/ and the second one is seem to be/ little young girl/ who who run bicycle/ and she stop by tree/ and she seemed/ farmer// didn't/ do not notice her/ because he is indulge in// picking up/ pear so she seem to steal/ one basket of pear// but// going back to some where she's/ originally moving// she run across several guys and// she// she scattered/ his pears on the earth// but/ that three I think three/ three boys/ help her to bring/ pear into the basket so/ she/ gave them as present several pear// and she ran away/// (and then) after that time the three boys// three boys come to the that tree/ the farmer is/ picking up/ tree in which the farmer on which the farmer picking up pears// but/ at that time the farmer/ who saw the/ one of the basket he sawed one of the basket is empty/ and he suspect (that) three boys/ as a thief of his/ pears// I think it's the end

Ki-Myeong

Picture

#1: uh there is a tree/ and on the tree/ oh monkeys are playing// uh there are/ five monkeys/ and they are hanging around in the tree on the tree// oh under the tree there is a old man/ it seems that he is selling hats

#2: oh/ the old man/ who is under the tree/ is sleeping/ and during his sleep// uh the monkeys went down/ and/ they are playing with his hats

#3: then the old man woke up/ he found that/ all monkeys// had his hats/ and all monkeys on the tree

#4: and it seems that the old man// got angry/// about the fact that monkeys had his hats

#5: oh/ the old man/ took off his hats// and it seems that the monkeys/ also// took off/ their hats// following he- the old man's act

#6: the old man/ took/ (xx) throw away his hat/ and also the monkeys/ uh throw away their hats/ following the old man's acting

Movie

uh a man was taking off// some pears// on the tree/// and after taking off his pears/ he collected his pears// into his baskets// while he was taking his pears/ on the- on the tree// a man/ was passed by leading his lamb// and a boy/ came to under the tree/ and he found that there was no man// watch him so he took off one of- one of his basket pear basket// and took it off/// while he was riding his bicycle// uh he met// a girl who was passing by/ (on the) (xx) on (her) bicycle/ and while he was watching the girl/ he was fallen from the bicycle/ and all of all of his pears// uh spilled over/// oh/ at that time/ three boys approached him and helped him to collect his/ pears into the basket// oh// and/ on-/ uh and three boy/ also found that/ the boy// uh left his hat/ on the- on the road/ so/ one of/ the three boys/ oh gave his the boy's hat to him/ and the boy gave three pears/ for the reply// uh while eating/ their pears/// oh they passed// uh under the tree// and the// man who was collecting pears found that// and suspi- uh was suspicious that/ they are the-/ boys who took off his basket of pears

Su-Beom

Picture 1

#1: in this picture ahm there one big trees ahm/// and ah// on the trees there are some// five monkeys/ and ah under the tree one ah one man/ as/ (x) (I seen) the monkeys play// on the trees

#2: when the man the guy f- fell in- in- into sleep into sleeping/ the monkeys// are come to came to the- came down to the trees and then (they) pick up the// hats/ they have uh- it-/ its own hat

#3: and then monkeys/ the monkeys follow uh the-/ that-// actions of the man// in this example ahm// the man// ahm///// the man// s-/ snatch-/ snatch on the hat// and then the- ah the monkeys also are // doing the same act- action

#4: ah next/ next page as- as well ah// when the man/ shout// toward the monkeys the monkeys also are shout to that at- at the man

#5: uhm///// OK ah this is a// it's not correct order but ah go to the/ back again ahm// ah man s- man was sleeping/ and then he wake up/ he- he recognize that uh monkeys of- took-// took out their hat- uh his hats/ and then he the monkeys have/ have each own hats on- on- on- on its hat// so the man was surprise on- uh- about that// ah that fact

#6: uh// do you remember the man/ shouti at the monkey to ah give the hat/ to him to him (in) the monkeys ah in this picture monkeys (give him) / give man ah the hats//// ah///// and ah// they- they looks happy all

Picture 2

#1: there's one big tree on this picture ahm// one man one man was sitting ah he is sitting under the tree/ and then seeing the monkeys playing// (under) the tree/ (when) in the each branch// ah man has/ man has a lot of hats// I'm not sure how many hats he has but uh it's there there are a lot of hats here

#2: ahm/ when the man fall in sleep/ the monkeys/ came down ah come down to the trees and then pick up the ahm// ah he- the- the guy's hats/ and then/ right now now the monkey- the monkey each monkey has its own hat/ its own hat

#3: when the man wake up/ the// he ah recognize that each monkey has his- his hats// ahm// ahm/ according to this picture the man shocked// (it's) a lot

#4: and///// to make to make man to make the monkeys return his his hat/ ah he shouted at the monkeys// but/ uhm// the monkeys uh shout/ they uh they follow the man action/ they shout uhm

#5: ah the next picture ahm/// ahm the man is thinking how// how to ah return how to get back uh his/ hats// ah and then he was- he is thinking actually ahm// the man is (xxxx) (the) hair// ah// and the// the- monkey also do (it) same act action

#6: ahm///// but/ I'm not sure this logically correct but ah// there's some missing information but monkey anyway monkey returned his hat his back his hats to uh the man the man is laughing and look so happy// that's the end of story

Movie

ahm/// on the screen the looks like the weather looks like/ the summer and ah/// the background/ ah background// (is) kind (x) environment maybe west/ west Ameri-// west/ western America is like// the characters looks like cowboys and ah// hot weather/ but it's the the mov- the movie starts ahm the scene that// one guy/ is/ is wearing cowboy clothes// ahm the picking up/// picking up the ah pears on the ah (on the) the trees// (on the) the tree/ and ah// he picking up the pears and put into the bag basket/ and ah I think/ he collect already two baskets/ two baskets of pears// ah two baskets of pear/ ahm/// time/ oh/ when he is when he is coming ah going down/ the bring/ bring the one basket is full of/ ah pear// the one one guy one guy is ah going passing by/ ah// the ah/// the passing by the trees/ ah the guy the the the-/ the guy has one goat// and// and then// and then after uh the guy with goat/ has appeared// the young// young child/ (I think) young boy ahm wa-/ is riding the bik- bicycle and come to the trees and and then he see ah no// no one's there/// ah no one's there but there are ahm/ two baskets of pears/ and then he recognize that one guy is at- on the the trees and then he he couldn't/ he cannot see he cannot (the) see// the boy pick up/ the pears// and then he ah/ he// he bring he bring (x) out all the baskets/ not/ one piece of pears/ ahm/// and then he go he ahm he he's/ and then he's ah escaping away from the trees and the man/ ah still the man uhm cannot recognize that/ he uh pass by one one one one girl also he uh who is riding the bicycle on the opposite direction// ah// the boy// the boy lose they his// it's his/ his eyesight ah I mean ah// he looks through/ he look at the ah the-/ the girl/ and then he step down hm the bicycle// because he are (he-) cannot (the) see the stones on the ro- on the road// and then he fell down to the ahm/// to the ahm to the land/ to the street/ and then three boys come to/ him/ to help him uhm get up and ahm// and then collect pears/ because the the ahm the bicycle is// you know fell down fall down and then the all pear/ pears is spread on the street// just anyway three boys is collect pears and put the baskets and then ahm// and ah// and then ah they are// they are ahm separate ah three boys from the (uh the) the-/ the boy uhm// (x-)/ three boys go to the the opposite direction the back ah/// he recognize that ah he ah- he foun- they found one/ uhm/ the boy's hat is on the street and then// the one- uh relatively ah fat boy ah pick up the hat and ah come

to the the boy/// ahm and (x) give the hat to to him// ah I'm not sure about in the reward of the returning hat to him// the boy has the (cap-) fat boy has uh/ three piece of pears (three piece of pear)// ahm/// maybe the boy the the boy/ give hi-/ the fat boy is uh three piece of pears and then// the// the fat boy share uh three// the pears/ with ah the other two ah boys and then come to the trees// the man who is picking (out) pears on the trees/ he come down to- under the- ah/ un- under- under- un-/ under the trees and he recognize that/ he lose one ah/ one ah basket of pear// but the same time the three boy passing by the trees and then ah eating the pears/// ahm// the man is the man is looks surprised// the ah he cannot ah blame of them because/ he cannot know that/ who di who to- took/ ah his his basket

APPENDIX C: WORDS USED IN THE PICTURE NARRATION TASK

a	be	doing
able	been	don't
about	begging	down
above	behavior	dropping
according	below	during
act	beside	each
acting	besides	end
action	big	enjoy
actions	bit	every
actually	both	example
after	branch	except
again	branches	explain
agree	bring	express
ah	bucket	fact
ahm	but	fall
all	by	fell
almost	came	finally
aloud	can't	five
also	caps	follow
an	catch	following
and	change	for
angry	changed	found
animals	chimpanzee	four
anyway	chimpanzees	from
are	clue	gathering
arms	come	gesture
around	continues	gestures
as	correct	get
asked	countryside	getting
at	couple	give
atmosphere	decisions	giving
awake	depicting	go
away	did	going
back	didn't	got
basket	do	grab
baskets	doesn't	gratitude

ground
guy
guy's
had
hair
hand
hanging
happened
happy
has
hat
hats
have
having
he
head
her
here
he's
hill
him
his
hm
houses
how
I
I'm
in
indicative
information
into
is
it
its
it's
joyful

just
know
laughed
laughing
leaning
least
like
likely
little
logically
long
look
looking
looks
lot
make
man
man's
many
me
mean
mimic
mimicking
mind
missing
monkey
monkeys
monkeys'
motions
mustache
my
nap
near
next
no
nodding

noise
not
now
number
of
off
oh
ok
old
on
once
one
or
order
other
out
over
own
page
peaceful
person
pick
picking
picture
pictures
play
playing
probably
quite
realized
reason
recognize
recognized
remember
required
rest

return
returned
right
sad
said
same
scratching
seeing
seem
seemingly
seems
sell
selling
several
shape
shapes
shocked
should
shout
shouted
shouting
shows
side
similar
sitting
situation
six
sleep
sleeping
sleepy
small
snitch
so
some
something
stand

staying
still
story
succeed
suddenly
surprise
surprised
sure
take
taken
takes
taking
terms
that
that's
the
their
them
then
there
there's
they
they're
thing
think
thinking
this
thought
three
threw
throw
threwed
to
took
toward
tree

trees
two
uh
uhm
under
up
very
wake
waked
want
was
watching
wearing
well
went
what
when
which
while
who
why
wise
with
woke
yeah
yell
yelling
you

APPENDIX D: WORDS USED IN THE NARRATIVE RECALL TASK

a	because	completely
about	been	completing
accident	behind	conclusive
across	bicycle	contained
after	bike	containing
afterwards	blame	continue
again	block	continuing
ah	boy	control
ahm	boys	correct
all	boy's	corrected
along	bring	couldn't
already	bringing	country
also	but	countryside
America	by	cow
and	bye	cowboy
another	call	cowboys
anything	called	cracked
anyway	came	cross
appear	can	crossed
appeared	cannot	decided
appreciation	careful	destination
approached	carefully	did
approaching	carrying	didn't
apron	cast	direction
are	chance	do
around	characters	does
as	child	doin
at	climb	doing
attractive	climbed	don't
away	climbing	down
back	clothes	driving
background	coat	during
bag	collect	each
basket	collecting	earth
baskets	come	eating
be	coming	empty

encountered	going	I'm
end	good	impressed
environment	got	in
escaping	ground	indulge
even	guy	intend
eventually	guys	intended
every	had	into
eyesight	hands	is
expressing	happened	it
fall	happens	it's
fallen	harvest	just
farmer	harvesting	kid
fat	harvestings	kids
fell	has	kind
felt	hat	knee
findings	hats	know
finish	having	knows
finishing	he	ladder
first	heading	lamb
for	help	land
found	helped	leaved
friend	helping	left
friends	her	leg
from	he's	let
front	hesitate	like
fruit	hill	likes
full	him	little
gathered	his	located
gathering	hm	look
gave	home	looked
get	hopeless	looking
getting	hot	looks
girl	how	lose
give	hurt	lost
go	I	loves
goat	I'll	make

man
mans
maybe
mean
meanwhile
meet
messed
met
missed
movie
moving
much
my
next
no
not
notice
noticing
of
off
oh
ok
on
once
one
one's
opposite
or
originally
other
out
over
own
pass
passed
passing

peaceful
peach
pear
pears
people
perplexed
person
pick
picked
picking
piece
place
play
present
put
putting
quite
ran
reading
receive
recognize
recognizing
relatively
reply
return
returned
returning
reverse
reward
ride
rided
riding
right
road
robbed
rode

rolled
run
running
same
saw
sawed
say
scattered
scene
scenery
screen
season
second
see
seeing
seem
seemed
seemingly
seems
separate
separating
several
share
she
she's
show
shows
side
situation
smell
so
some
son
sort
speak
spilled

spread
spreaded
stability
stand
starts
steal
stealing
step
still
stole
stolen
stones
stop
story
street
stumbled
suddenly
summer
sure
surprised
surprising
suspect
suspicion
suspicious
taking
tell
thank
that
that's
the
their
them
then
there
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APPENDIX E: QUESTIONS FOR THE SECOND INTERVIEW

1. Age:
2. When did you come to the U.S.?
3. How long have you been in the U.S.?
4. Have you ever been to a country where English is spoken?
5. How long will you stay in the U.S.?
6. Do you plan to seek a job in the U.S? Or in Korea?
7. How will English influence on your job?
8. Do you think you will use English fluently in the future?
9. Comparing you to other Koreans, do you think you use English well?
10. How much have you practiced speaking in English?
11. What do you focus on when you speak in English?
12. Do you speak English as you speak Korean?
13. What do you think of your English vocabulary ability?
14. Is there difference in speaking with preparation and speaking without preparation? If then, what kinds of difference are there?
15. Is there difference in talking about topics in your discipline and in having a conversation on everyday affairs? If then, what kinds of difference are there?
16. How do you check whether you make yourself understood?
17. What strategies do you use when you speak in English?
18. When you narrated the tasks, who did you imagine to speak to?
19. Did you consider the fact that there is a researcher when you performed the tasks?

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